UNIVERSITY LIBRARIANSHIP

G. H. BUSHNELL

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UNIVERSITY LIBRARIANSHIP

University Librarianship

By
GEORGE HERBERT BUSHNELL
University Librarian, St Andrews

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1930

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TO

MY MOTHER

WHOSE KNOWLEDGE OF BOOKS
IS GREATER THAN THAT OF
ANY WOMAN I KNOW

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PREFACE

JOHN ADDINGTON SYMONDS commenced his well-known hymn with the words "These things shall be," the accent, of course, falling on the word "shall." The whole spirit of the hymn is one of inspired confidence, and, in common with all other writers whose books contain recommendations and expressions of hopes, I should like to feel a similar confidence that whatever is good or useful in the following pages will some day come to pass.

So far very little has been written about university librarianship as a special branch of librarianship, and the purpose of this book is to provide notes which it is hoped will be of some use to workers in this field.

It will thus be understood that in no sense is this work to be regarded for one moment as a rival of the excellent manuals of public librarianship which are already on the market. That it was bound to cover some of the same ground was realized from the outset, but there has been no attempt on my part either to fall into line with or deliberately to differ from such works.

The scope of the book is very wide, ranging from such junior work as stamping books to very highly

specialized work indeed. In the latter category I have dealt with matters usually neglected in manuals of librarianship, such as the arrangement of special collections of bindings, the reorganization of university libraries, the methods of copying inscriptions, and so on.

It will be clear from the List of Contents, indeed, that many of the topics treated are outside the scope of most of the library textbooks. A careful study of each of them is really necessary for workers in university libraries, and, I think, in some degree in other libraries too. Thus it is hoped that the book may appeal, not only to university librarians and assistants, but to a wider circle of librarians working in every kind of library all over the world, though its primary purpose, of course, is to serve the workers in university and college libraries.

The justification for the views I have expressed in the following pages, which in any way depart from the usual, is that they are definitely my own views, based on a not inconsiderable amount of experience in the management of university libraries. The suggestions made are written, as clearly as I have found possible, in the hope that perhaps to some they may prove useful. In almost every instance they have the definite advantage of having been tried and not found wanting.

On the other hand, the decisions and ideas of one librarian can never be universally acceptable, hence I do not expect mine to be. One problem may have

half a dozen answers in as many libraries, but occasionally the answers will coincide. It is hoped that sometimes some of my suggestions may turn out to be the most suitable for adoption in other libraries.

Some of the methods I advocate or suggest may be deemed by other librarians to be inefficient or impracticable, but it should be remembered, as Dr. Richardson once said, I believe, that "One never knows how effective a library method is until one has tested it by real use."

Many topics have only been lightly touched upon and others have been neglected altogether. Yet others have been dealt with in considerable detail, either from a desire to put forward what may be new suggestions or because, as far as I am aware, practically nothing has been written definitely about them from the point of view of a worker in a university library.

Naturally, in the compilation of a book of this kind I have received assistance or encouragement from many people, and if I do not enumerate them all it is not because their ready help is not appreciated, but rather because their name, if it be not legion, is more than a short Preface will contain. Some I must mention, however, for instance Mr. Arundell Esdaile, who indicated some important publications to me. Colonel Newcombe and Dr. Richard Offor have placed me very considerably in their debt in several ways. Librarians in other countries have been equally generous, and I cannot refrain from

mentioning my indebtedness to Dr. Svend Dahl, Dr. Hulshof, Dr. Theissen of Groningen, Mr. Roger Howson, Librarian of Columbia University, and to the Librarian of the University of Gand.

Finally, I gladly acknowledge the immense amount of assistance given by my wife and other members of my family. Their help and criticism has been, as ever, immensely valuable.

It will be understood, of course, notwithstanding the acknowledgments just made, that I alone am responsible for all errors of any nature whatsoever.

If the book is of service to others the writer will be well repaid.

GEORGE H. BUSHNELL.

ST ANDREWS,
August, 1930.

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UNIVERSITY LIBRARIANSHIP

I

THE GOVERNMENT OF UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

THE degree of power and authority vested in a university librarian varies in different universities, and, for that matter, in different countries.

In this country, no matter how powerful he may be in practice, in theory he is more or less subject to a number of governing bodies.

The chief of the bodies is, theoretically, the library committee. The most powerful body in actuality, however, is the university council or court, and to this body the library committee must usually appeal for sanction before it can take any very far-reaching action.

Thus, matters involving serious expenditure, while they may be deliberated upon by the library committee, must be approved by the council (or whatever name the body which is in effect the governing body of the university may bear) before action can be taken.

On the other hand, matters involving regulations and disciplinary action are generally referred to the senatus academicus. This body is usually competent to deal with such matters without reference to the council, but in some universities, I believe, approval by that body is sought in these cases also.

There are thus three important bodies acting in their various ways as overseers of a university library.

In addition to these chief bodies, however, there may be any number of sub-committees of the library committee, each of which may be moderately powerful within its own sphere of action. In some universities, for instance, there may be a book-selection sub-committee, a finance sub-committee, and so on.

The librarian should, of course, be a member of the library committee itself: usually in practice he acts as secretary to that body. He should also be a member of every sub-committee which may exist. In one or two cases, too few, it is to be feared, he is also a member of senate.

Strictly speaking one must admit that there is no real reason why he should be a full member of senate, since that body very largely consists of the professorial staff in their *teaching* capacity, and it cannot, usually at least, be argued that the librarian is a university teacher,[1] unless his appointment was made upon those terms.

Nevertheless, the senate should most certainly co-opt him on all occasions when library or book matters are to be subjects of discussion, and usually his advice will be given gladly and ungrudgingly.

[1] Perhaps one should say, rather, that he does not usually give a regular course of lectures.

II

LIBRARIANS' COMMITTEES

MANY librarians still fail to obtain the benefit of the *full* assistance of their staffs. It is sometimes difficult to persuade a brilliant man—and some librarians certainly are brilliant—that often two or more heads are better than one. Thus it not infrequently happens that a librarian treats his staff as (perhaps) excellent workers under *his* guidance, but as no more, failing to consider that valuable suggestions may be lying dormant in the minds of his assistants. To some extent this is a condition common to all walks of life and, no doubt, is also to some extent unavoidable.

It is possible, however, as some librarians have realised, to mitigate to a considerable degree such a condition in libraries.

The suggestion to be made is not quite on the same lines as the staff-meetings arrangement which has been adopted in a few libraries both in this country and abroad. Put briefly it consists of the recommendation that *librarians' committees* might advantageously be formed. A librarian's committee, in a large library, might, it is suggested, consist of the librarian as convener and chairman, the senior assistants, a representative of the junior staff, the chairman of the sub-committees of the library committee (i.e. finance, book-selection, etc.) if such exist,

and, if possible, the chairman or a representative of the library committee itself.

A librarian's committee, so constituted, might not, indeed, probably would not have any powers of direct action, but it should have powers of recommendation to the library committee and, in most cases at least, would actually be able to exert considerable influence on library affairs.

It is not recommended or even suggested that matters of finance should ever be competent business for such a committee to consider or recommend upon, except in so far as salaries questions are concerned. But matters connected with such subjects as catalogues and cataloguing, classification, and, indeed, all ordinary administrative matters in which the work of assistants is of importance, would be competent matters for such a committee to consider, and it could, indeed, deal with them far more satisfactorily than the average library committee can be expected to do, even if final approval or otherwise must be left to the library committee. It is thought that even building matters could, with advantage to all, be first discussed by a librarian's committee.

Most assistants, in fact usually all assistants whose services are worth retaining in a library, study library affairs; not merely those which concern the library in which they work, but library matters generally; and their opinions and knowledge should be of importance as well as their labour.

Many of them, in the ordinary course of events, become librarians themselves, and it is only just to them, and, indeed, fair to the librarian under whom they work, that full advantage of their knowledge should be taken, while they are still assistants.

Definite and adequate recognition of such committees would need to be obtained or little good would be done, and, once established, a librarian's committee would necessarily have to justify its existence, but it is not anticipated that to do so would be a very difficult matter in most libraries.

III

STAFFING UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

One of the most important sides of university librarianship is frequently the one accorded least consideration by committees and by readers. I refer, of course, to the business side, from the aspect of practical inseparation of growth of library and growth of staff, or growth of library and diminution of efficiency. In almost every library there is a constant cry for more books and more periodicals. It is obvious, in university libraries particularly, since universities are definitely teaching institutions, that any such demand is justifiable. Unfortunately, however, one rarely hears a cry, except from librarians themselves, for *larger staffs*. Yet it would seem to be the most patent fact that the staff should grow in proportion to the books. Further than this, the appropriation for salaries should bear at least a vague relationship to the size of the library. At present, it is to be feared, not the vaguest relationship exists in some cases. A college library, for instance, containing, say, some 30,000 volumes, may enjoy an appropriation of, say £800 per annum for salaries, whereas a university library containing perhaps a quarter of a million volumes may only be allowed some £1,600 for salaries.

The matter is one to which no solution is immedi-

ately apparent : librarians can do little, comparatively speaking, towards more reasonable adjustment, and presumably it must be left mainly to the governing bodies of universities to scttle.

The composition of the staff, as far as it is separable from the question of salaries, is another matter, however. The old theory that any educated person is certain to satisfactorily fill a librarian's post in a university is certainly not quite exploded, but is passing into the lumber room whereto such theories are consigned. At the same time it is very certain that no uneducated person can satisfactorily officiate as the head of a university library. The essential point, of course, is that, just as a professor of zoology must be possessed of qualifications other than those acquired by an individual who has had what is loosely called a good education, so a librarian must have qualifications apart from those acquired by taking a course in one or other faculty of a university or college. He must, in his own province, be an exceptional man, for, apart altogether from ordinary academic qualifications, he should be a master-man of what is now a definite profession, and, what is equally important, he should be a bibliographer of the first class.

It is perfectly true, as I have remarked elsewhere, that men have been appointed to librarianships of importance who have had, at best, only a nodding acquaintance with bibliography, no knowledge of palæography, typography, book-bindings, or even librarianship itself, and have managed to acquit themselves well. It can hardly be doubted, however, that in such cases there have been unusual circumstances, and such circumstances, whether applicable

to the man or to the post, cannot be taken into consideration in a general theoretical statement. All that can be regarded as applicable to a librarian is, in varying degrees, applicable to the other members of a university library staff, as far as qualifications are concerned.

Status is another question, but undoubtedly a university librarian should take professorial or at least associate-professorial rank.

It is not perhaps necessary to urge this primarily with a view to raising the status of librarians, but a librarian is, or should be, a professor of books and book lore, and it is clearly to the advantage of a university to have such a man on its senate, at any rate on occasion.

The librarian usually acts as secretary to the library committee, and no doubt in practice the arrangement is a satisfactory one. There is probably something to be said for the librarian acting as convener and chairman, however. As far as I am aware no such arrangement has been tried in this country, but it appears to have worked well in America in at least one case. Conditions are different here, and unless the librarian has a seat not only on the senate, but also on the council or court of the university, it is doubtful if he can as usefully serve the library as chairman, as he can as secretary.

No set duties can be laid down for a librarian, except the vague one of general supervision. The calls upon his time and knowledge will vary with the size and importance of the library, and are, indeed, so great in a large university library, that, even with a capable and industrious sub-librarian to relieve him, it is practically essential for him to

have a "personal assistant." Such an assistant may be, and often is, termed a secretary, but to be of very great use to the librarian he must be more than an ordinary secretary, for his knowledge of the library must be as thorough as that of the sub-librarian. In my view the desirability of a personal assistant can hardly be over-estimated, for a number of reasons, chief among which, perhaps, is that the sub-librarian is usually a very busy man whose duties are, to a considerable extent, hard and fast, and, indeed, onerous. The secretary, or personal assistant, may have a few definite duties, but as far as possible should be free to assist the librarian in any work whatsoever. It will be understood that it is in no way belittling this important personage to suggest that he should resemble the librarian's shadow, except, perhaps, that he should loom larger on dull days than on days when all goes well.

Every assistant in a university library should be familiar with several foreign languages. It is not necessary that he should be able to speak them fluently, but he should be capable of reading them.

A really good general knowledge is of equal or perhaps even greater importance. General knowledge is a term which is somewhat derided in these days of specialisation, probably for the very reason that few people outside the library profession really possess much general knowledge. That is the kind of statement which will provoke criticism, no doubt, but I believe it to be true to a very great extent.

The Library Association courses in Librarianship should be taken by all assistants, unless, of course, they have taken those of a School of Librarianship. It is to be regretted, I think, that the proposed higher

courses of the Library Association have not been taken advantage of, for they seem to me to be singularly suitable for assistants in university libraries.

IV

UNIVERSITY LIBRARIANSHIP

UNFORTUNATELY, from the two points of view of librarianship and public service, many public library committees have been under the impression (indeed some few still are under the impression) that anyone, provided that he be the cheapest man obtainable, is eminently suitable for a post as librarian. Fortunately this has never been quite so true of university librarianship. Generally speaking, the governing bodies of universities have invariably appointed educated men to control their libraries. It is to be feared, however, that in many university library appointments, particularly in this country—for here we are behind the rest of the world—knowledge of practical librarianship, of bibliography or of palæography have played little part as deciding factors in the appointments. For the reason for this we have not very far to seek. Many librarians, both in university libraries and out of them, have not been the capable organizers or educated helpers they were expected, reasonably enough, to be. Often these half-failures have been what one calls trained librarians. It is natural enough then that both committees and outsiders should gain the impression that so-called trained librarians are of no greater value, if as much, to them, as someone who, while

he may have no practical experience of the technical side of the work, is yet clearly well read, educated, and likely to be a satisfactory colleague ; capable of assisting research students by reason of his own knowledge of research method, and known to have a book-lover's knowledge of books. It is perhaps time that some of us who, maybe, pride ourselves on our practical knowledge, on our infallible record systems, on the absolute uniformity observed in the thousands of entries in our catalogues—and pride ourselves with justice no doubt—it is perhaps time that we realized how very little these things mean to those outside the library profession. Hard though it seems, it may, indeed, be true to say that they often mean nothing to anyone but ourselves. I would almost go farther and say that they are frequently held by others to be causes of annoyance. As a race, we librarians are far from perfect in the eyes of others.

It is little wonder, really, that so frequently men with little or no practical experience are appointed to important positions. The very small ones we can ignore, since often they present other factors, such as cheapness of labour, with which we are not immediately concerned.

At the same time it is highly unsatisfactory, if librarianship is to be regarded as a profession comparable to the professions of law, medicine, etc., to have men with either no training at all, or at best only very little, appointed to important positions. As long as such a state of affairs exists librarianship never will rank with the other professions, and it is not the slightest use librarians pretending that it does or will. It may be retorted that some of the heads of

our large libraries, although they are men totally untrained and, in a sense, inexperienced, since they have never had anything to do with the lower phases of routine work in a library, and, further, have never contributed one original thought or word to matters library, are yet universally respected men, taking very high rank in the world of knowledge. This is unquestionably true, but the fact is one which redounds purely and wholly to their own credit and not to that of the library profession. They are famous men, in spite of the fact that they are librarians, rather than because of it. The respect they have won and the rank they have rightly obtained is due not to their librarianship, but to their scholarship. This last sentence unquestionably must be qualified by an immediate acknowledgment of the undoubted fact that many of these men, since adopting the profession, have surpassed in executive ability others of the trained band of librarians. But this is merely a further argument of the exceptional ability of those particular individuals, and while their own fame has most certainly shed lustre upon librarianship, I contend still that it is primarily because of their unusual knowledge or extraordinary intelligence, rather than because they are librarians. In almost every case they would have been equally famous had they not been librarians at all.

This is, no doubt, an admirable fact to contemplate, and it is an honour to librarianship to have such men holding high positions in the library world; but the fact remains that the profession itself can claim little credit for an honour not won, but thrust upon it.

The difference between librarianship and other

professions seems to lie here: that, in librarianship, a scholar, without library training, may be appointed to an important position, whereas no scholar without medical training becomes a specialist; no scholar without adequate training becomes the architect responsible for the building of a notable library or any other building.

It may seem exaggerative to draw such comparisons, but if librarianship is to be regarded as a profession it must face comparison with other professions, and from all angles.

That brings us again to the important point that in other professions a man may be and often is a scholar in some other branch of knowledge, but he is invariably a man who has undergone no little training in his own chosen profession. Other professions call for long years of study and practical experience from the elementary to the advanced stages. Librarianship must fall into line if it is ever to take its proper place in the professional world.

At present things are far too haphazard. Educational facilities are provided by the Library Association and by the London School of Librarianship, it is true, and in both cases an immense amount of good has been done. On the whole, however, in both cases, the courses are primarily intended for those contemplating obtaining, or already holding posts in *public* libraries. Or perhaps it would be more true to say that no courses are planned particularly for university library staffs.

This is natural enough, for the field of university librarianship is exceedingly small, and in the present state of affairs, at any rate, the Library Association would not be justified in setting out to cater par-

ticularly for a class of library workers which up to the present has interested itself but little in professional education.

The fault lies not with the facilities for education, primarily, nor even with those responsible for its provision, but with ourselves.

The larger issue of professional status unquestionably lies with the body officially representing the profession, but the Association can do little to help the university or college librarian until a definite move is made by the staffs of university libraries to organize themselves and their affairs; providing adequate facilities for training for work in these special libraries, and, what is even more essential in some respects, for intercourse and visiting other libraries, on a large scale. It is suggested that no insuperable difficulties stand in the way of arrangements for visiting the continental university libraries; not, of course, in the ordinary way of holiday-making or through the Easter schools, etc., but by means of an organized programme.

No new association or society is required. Any such institution would, at its worst, serve to weaken both the idea of professionalism and also the Library Association. There does not seem to be a serious reason, however, why the Library Association should not be a corporation with, as now, a mixed council, but actually composed of several sections, including one of university and college librarians and assistants. This section should have its own chairman and committee, whose duty it would be to look after all matters relative to university and college libraries. It would be subject, of course, to the Council of the Association, but it might pro-

fitably employ itself in arranging courses of training and examination particularly suitable for its members and for others desirous of entering this particular branch of the profession.

This, I think, is the most important move which could be made at present in regard to university and college librarianship, and until it is taken such librarianship will remain, as it is at present, a rather indefinite and haphazard branch of the profession.

NOTE—Since writing the above, a branch of the Library Association with similar objects to those outlined above has come into being. I had originally intended to map out a course of training suited to university library staffs, but in view of the formation of this new section of the Library Association it is probably better to await developments. The whole matter is now, at any rate, in safe hands.

V

ETHICS

THE stir which is being made at present for more general and complete recognition of librarianship as a profession at least co-equal with the other accepted and recognized professions should, and no doubt will, call public and private attention to various aspects of librarianship. It is clear that the profession is vulnerable in several places at present, places which have been carefully protected in other professions. There is, for example, the obvious fact that other professions have definite qualifications which every member must obtain or run the risk of being condemned as a quack. That must become the starting point for librarianship in its new era. At present there remains much to be done in that direction. There is not the slightest doubt that every chief librarian in this country should be a member of the Library Association.

Another, and very important matter, is the question of professional ethics. Without a code of ethics a profession can not or should not exist. For university and college librarians it should be recognized that the science of right conduct and character must be applied in three directions. In the first place there should be a code of purely professional ethics; that is or should be an essential for all librarians. Then

there should be a code of ethics applicable in the institution in which one works; and, thirdly, there is the matter of mutual loyalty amongst the staff: librarian, sub-librarian and assistants of all grades.

Unfortunately no iron code exists, and, clearly, to frame one is not work for any particular individual, but for all, or, perhaps, for our representative body, the Library Association. Even the Association itself would need to confer with the associations of other countries in order to compile a really satisfactory code. But if librarianship is to rise from the rut and assume equality with those professions wherein the least whisper of any happening not quite *comme il faut* is drastically enquired into, it is clear that something must be done in this direction.

In this matter there is no question of one making a mountain out of a mole-hill. It would be a great thing for librarianship if there were.

The question of ethics in general is, as has been said, a matter for the Library Association, and personal comment is probably undesirable until that body has framed a code. In parenthesis it should be made quite clear that the Library Association never has dealt lightly, and is never likely to deal lightly with unprofessional conduct. The questions of personal conduct towards the university or college authorities, and amongst the members of the staff, are, however, ones upon which something may be said.

In the first place, without much risk of being misunderstood, it may be mentioned that many of us have so many outside calls upon our time and energy and so many private interests, it may be literary or scientific, that we are apt to expend a perhaps exceptional amount of thought and labour

upon them. In these I do not include religious or family matters : these should invariably be regarded as the first calls upon one.

No librarian worth his salt will find himself without occupation in his " spare " time, but the everyday duties of the library have a prior claim over one's other work, and this fact should be kept continually in mind. I may say that it is with some feeling of diffidence and in no hypercritical spirit that I write this, but there is an undeniable danger for the librarian who is perhaps a specialist in some other field to spend too much of his time in operations unconnected with his place of employment. This tendency is, of course, not by any means confined to our own profession, and any remarks which apply to one profession apply almost equally to any.

Then there is loyalty to one's staff. And this is not always a particularly easy duty, as many of us know. It is clear, however, that theoretically the librarian is responsible for what his assistants do or do not do. How far loyalty in difficult cases should be carried is probably questionable. I seem to remember hearing of a librarian who resigned rather than tell his superiors who was responsible in a bad case of, I think, neglect of duty. One can thoroughly admire this attitude, but it seems doubtful if such a position is justifiable, and it certainly should not be necessary. A committee which would accept such a man's resignation in those circumstances is unfitted to function. There, I think, is the rub, that committees are no more perfect than library staffs. It is easy to say " seek the good points in the other fellow ; the bad points in yourself," but will the library authority also take that attitude ? Some-

times, perhaps, but not always, and I do not think any librarian is being fair to himself or to his family if he takes upon himself the blame in really definitely bad cases for which he is actually quite free from blame. In cases where a fault which any member of his staff has committed can honestly be said to be in any degree attributable to the librarian, then that officer should take the responsibility, but in no other case. Codes of ethics are applicable to assistants as well as to librarians.

But perhaps I might add a word to any youthful assistant who may chance to read this. No librarian who is a man as well as a librarian is likely to deal very hardly with a junior who occasionally spends a little of his time in the library in directions clearly not beneficial to anyone but himself. But it is well for that junior to remember that librarians see and hear a good deal of which they take no notice, and that if the librarian " plays the game " it is only fair for the junior to show his appreciation and reciprocate.

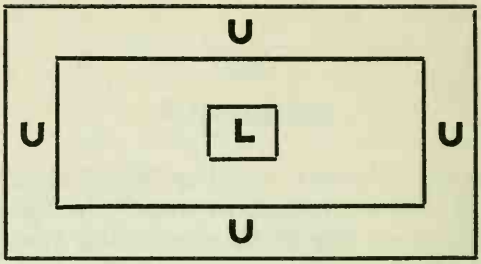
VI

BUILDINGS

THE subject of library buildings is one about which it is very difficult indeed to write. In some ways the problem is a far more complicated one for university and college than for public libraries. This is so because many of the former are old buildings having historical interest, whereas in the latter case the buildings are mostly of recent date. The difficulties attending the conversion of old buildings to modern requirements, while maintaining in as great a degree as possible the historical interest and interfering as little as may be with existing walls and fitments, provide scope for exceptional intelligence, care, and knowledge.

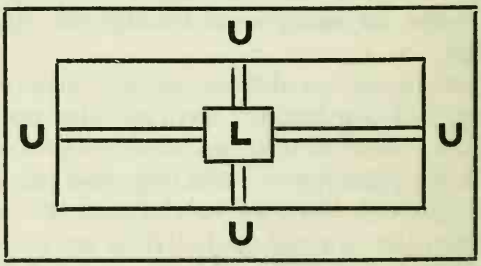
The more recent foundations among the universities and colleges of this country have not the same problems to face. Several of them, notably those of Leeds and Hull, are planning to build large and exceedingly well thought out libraries in the near future. At Nottingham the new college buildings are little short of magnificent, but perhaps hardly as much thought has been expended upon the library portion as has been the case at Hull and Leeds. In both of these the centralization theory has been adopted, and although one is a new foundation and the other has been established for some time, the general idea of

the libraries as far as position is concerned is similar. In a broad way the diagram will indicate the arrangement.



U = University Buildings. L = The Library.

At Hull, when the building scheme is completely carried out the position of the library in relation to the other departments will be nearly ideal. It will be linked up by connecting passages with the other buildings on each side as :



thus convenience of access from any department will be remarkable.

I understand that at Hull the library is being planned to take some 500,000 volumes, while at Leeds the number is 1,000,000. Leeds, of course, is

a university, whilst both Hull and Nottingham are university colleges. Very few university libraries in this country have a capacity as great as that which the new library at Leeds will have, but, as far as it is possible to foresee these matters, it will be a very long time before Leeds possesses even half the number of volumes which the library will be capable of holding. This is, in fact, an almost unique example, as far as Britain is concerned in the present generation, of planning for the very distant future. As such it is worthy of very considerable attention by all librarians, and, indeed, by all university authorities. It seems probable that the 20th century will have drawn to a close and the 21st be no longer young before the shelves in the proposed library at Leeds University are full. The question perhaps emerges from this probability as to what the capacity of a university library should be; a question in which more than one factor is involved, and one by no means easy of solution.

In the first place we have to remember that a few hundred years hence the foundations of the 19th and early 20th centuries will stand in much the same relation to the people of that day as Oxford, Cambridge, St Andrews, etc., stand in to the people of ours. Most of us look with sympathy upon the more or less unlimited growth of the libraries of our old universities, but we take with difficulty the same viewpoint in regard to our new ones. This, viewed through the corridors of time, is an entirely fallacious position to adopt. It is quite possible, indeed from the trend of modern economic and social life, it is extremely probable, that, to the man of the year 2,000, Leeds University, Birmingham University,

and very likely all the now modern universities will be of more importance than the older ones, with, it may be, one exception, Glasgow. Glasgow is both old and new, and stands in a position unlike that of any other British university. It is a modern university, as modern as any, but with traditions and possessions handed down for nearly five hundred years. Edinburgh, Aberdeen, and particularly St Andrews still more resemble Oxford and Cambridge than they do the new universities.

It seems, indeed, that the current trend of affairs, enveloped in scientific commercialism, and so different from that of the days of the Reformation, must be regarded in the light of being a very great factor indeed in questions of library expansion. The scientific and commercial schools of to-day had no real counterpart in the 16th century university, and it is clear that, great and flourishing as they are, they are as yet only in their infancy.

Cambridge University Library and the Bodleian are both to expand their walls, and almost the whole of the library world looks forward with pleasurable anticipation to the maturing and execution of their plans. It is understood that the plans of one if not both of these great libraries will be published and commented upon in the *Library Association Record*, when they have been finally adopted.

St Andrews University Library has recently added a new Entrance Hall and Catalogue Room, with staff accommodation, and is busily engaged in redecorating and more or less restoring its old Parliament Hall. Glasgow has equipped a large modern store. Birmingham is contemplating additional buildings at the Harding Library, Edgbaston, and

probably others are also so occupied. It is thus clear that the time is not yet ripe for a detailed survey of university library buildings in this country, but it is also equally clear that in about ten years' time, perhaps less, such a survey will be of very great interest and importance indeed, and the suggestion is thrown out that it should be contemplated, if not by the Library Association, then by some competent individual.

VII

GENERAL ARRANGEMENT

THE general arrangement of a university library is a matter so beset with problems of one kind or another that it is quite impossible to lay down rules applicable to all. There are, however, a few facts of more or less general applicability.

A general broad division between Arts and Science usually works fairly well. Science again splits into two broad groups, Science in one and Medicine in the other. With Medicine may go the Natural Sciences, including Agriculture (for Pestology, etc.). Technology may go with the Mathematical and Physical Sciences.

Arts splits in the same way into Theology and Arts. If possible three divisions may be made; in the first, Theology, including Church History; in the second the Historical Sciences, and in the third Languages and Literatures. This, however, is not always advantageous.

Apart from these divisions a good general arrangement scheme entails various other "breaks." For instance, it is quite useful in a large library to split each subject into two parts, periodicals on the one side and text-books, etc., on the other side. It is a great advantage if separate store rooms can be provided. The difficulties attendant upon "full

up" shelves are far less marked if no attempt is made to run periodicals and text-books in one sequence.

Another room or portion of a room is required for reserved books, i.e. rare works, privately printed books, books in handsome modern bindings (early bindings are referred to elsewhere), etc. If the general reading room is a large hall with a gallery running around it, it is sometimes useful to have the reserved books in the gallery, arranged in sections corresponding to those in the hall below. Here it is assumed that in the hall itself are shelved the books in common use.

If the library contains many early printed books, these should have a room to themselves, wherein they can be properly arranged and looked after. This room should have in it a few show cases in which treasures of especial interest may be exhibited. It is hardly necessary to add that this room should be as far as possible fireproof and that the bookcases should have locked doors. This room can be made to serve as a library "museum" also.

In the librarian's own room will be shelved most of the works dealing with librarianship and bibliography (in the broad sense, i.e. including typography, etc.).

Publications of clubs, societies, academies, and universities may be shelved with the periodicals or may be split again into two or more groups. It is sometimes desirable to maintain as one group what may be termed the "text" societies, i.e. those societies which exist for the publication of works compiled or written in earlier centuries, and their kindred. These societies are really quite distinct

from, and there is nothing to be gained by regarding them as having even theoretical connection with such societies as the British Medical Association, the Royal Anthropological Institute, the Geological Society, the Royal Societies of London and Edinburgh, etc. These latter societies exist mainly to provide adequate and suitable means for spreading new knowledge. It is true, of course, that text societies such as the Malone, for example, also spread new knowledge, in the form of criticism and fresh historical data, but their purpose is really quite different. It is usual, and perhaps it is convenient, to include both kinds in a general printed catalogue of periodicals and society publications, but there is little logic in the action. A book published by a text society is a work in itself, able to stand upon its own merits and to be treated as a complete and independent book, whereas a volume issued by the Royal Society is simply a volume, *not* a book; it is, in fact, a periodical comparable with any other periodical such as *Scientia*, for example. I am not, of course, suggesting that the scholarship is necessarily on the same footing, though it may be.

The next point in the general arrangement of a library is to attempt to bring close together subjects which are connected in the teaching in the university. This usually means that the classes will not run as they do in the classification scheme, if one of the ordinary classification schemes is adopted. In the Library of Congress Scheme, for instance, Science is Class Q, but Applied Sciences go into Class T. It has been found possible in the store rooms at St Andrews to bring Applied Physics in the bay next to Physics, Applied Chemistry in the bay next to Chemistry,

and so on, by running the classes in strict order but snake fashion, i.e. down one row of cases, up the next, and down the next. Ability to do this will depend to a great extent upon the rooms at one's disposal, obviously. In any case it is, in my opinion, much more essential to bring the classes together which are connected in the university than to have a perfect arrangement by classification schedules.

Most of the other points connected with the general arrangement of a library are so bound up with other matters as to be outside the scope of this section, and are dealt with elsewhere.

VIII

CLASSIFICATION

It has been said by more than one person that the existing classification schemes are unsuitable for university libraries and that, in fact, little is gained by classifying such libraries. Taking the latter part of this statement first, it is obvious enough, one imagines, that if any degree of open access is possible in a university library the same advantages of having books classified are gained as in a public library. If open access is impossible or impracticable, then from the reader's point of view it is true enough that there is nothing to be gained. But even so, unless a really adequate subject catalogue is available, the staff must clearly benefit and be able to be of more use to readers if the books are classified.

The first part of the statement is, I think, based upon a very common misunderstanding of the idea of adopting a recognized scheme of classification. It must be admitted that one cannot agree with the view taken in certain manuals of classification; in fact it is perhaps due to these manuals (I refer to the less reasonable and less mature ones) that the misconception and antipathy has arisen. This misconception is that, a classification scheme having been adopted, the librarian's aim is to mould the library to the scheme, irrespective of the teaching

in the university. I do not mean, of course, that the librarian will not make new places here and there in the scheme, but I speak generally.

This view is, as has already been mentioned, supported by certain manuals wherein librarians are taught to adhere as closely as possible to the scheme. It is, of course, an entirely erroneous view. The idea is, or should be, to mould the scheme to the library, with complete indifference as to whether or not the result is perfect classification as far as the scheme is concerned or not.

To give a few examples: classification schemes, rightly enough from many points of view, have water-tight compartments labelled "History," "Social Sciences," "Classical Literature," and so on. These classes are seldom satisfactory in a university library. For instance, Greek scholars should not only have at hand, in one and the same section of the library, Greek texts and books on Greek language (unfortunately widely separated in the Dewey scheme), but also books on Greek philosophy, Greek religion, Greek history, inscriptions, palæography, classical geography, biography, archæology, numismatics, and so on, and, moreover, bibliographies of these subjects.

Again, the historian does not merely require such books as can readily be classified within the class "History" of a scheme. He is just as much concerned with archives, for instance, which are usually located elsewhere in the tables, and with social science, customs, place-names, biography, government, law, and so on.

One more example: moral philosophy and political economy are usually widely separated in schemes,

yet there is a connection which should be remembered in classifying books in university libraries. Anyone familiar with writers like John Stuart Mill will realize the necessity of not merely following printed tables where these subjects are concerned.

My object in rather emphasizing these points has not been in any degree to decry the use of what one may term "standard" classification schemes, in university libraries. If the library is to be classified there are very numerous advantages to be gained from having available as a basis one such scheme.

The point to be insisted upon is that, having adopted a scheme, the university librarian who slavishly follows it in an undeviating way, will be at least partially negativing the value of classifying the library at all.

It is not proposed to enter into a long and detailed consideration of the merits of the various schemes here. That has already been very well done by Mr. Berwick Sayers and others. It is, however, suggested that one scheme, and that one by no means the most popular, may have certain points which make it one of the most satisfactory for adoption in university libraries. The scheme referred to is that of the Library of Congress.

This scheme is now in use in several really large libraries in this country, and it has proved its merits, I believe, beyond all question. No doubt the supporters of other schemes can say the same of them. There are, however, several points in the Congress scheme which have not received the notice they deserve. It is, for instance, the only scheme built up around a collection of books which in many ways

is similar to a university collection. Check-lists have been published in certain sections, and these check-lists are invaluable "tests" from the classifier's point of view. The literature schemes, giving as they do biographical details, full names, etc., to exceedingly complete lists of writers, are exceptionally useful. Periodically lists of subject headings are printed and distributed, and these lists can be made to serve several purposes, one very useful one being as subdivisions under authors, special collections, etc. It should, perhaps, be pointed out that they are not intended to be used for this purpose.

Perhaps the greatest advantage of this scheme, however, in university libraries, bears upon the point emphasized in the earlier paragraphs of this section. That is, the vast number of alternative places which the scheme provides, and by means of which it becomes almost as easy to classify certain books in one class as in another. The time saved by having these alternatives already provided, even after admitting that they are not final and all-sufficient, can be readily understood by all librarians. Further, it may be mentioned that the two large volumes which are issued as *Subject Headings* may easily be made to serve as a subject index to the whole scheme, thus once more saving a very considerable amount of time and trouble to the librarian.

The most common point of failure about classification schemes is, it seems to me, their lack of a due sense of time values. They are 19th century, 20th century, or some other century schemes, adopting as the very essence of their beings the values of the period of their compilation.

It may be held that this is an unavoidable, in

fact an essential point of view to take: that the scheme which does not do so is not fulfilling its purpose.

I agree that most of us classify with one eye on the scholarship clock, adopting the views of the present day as our bases in deciding positions. And this perhaps is almost as it should be, for after all we are concerned with bringing to a given position in the scheme of knowledge the literature which modern scholars contend belongs there.

Nevertheless there is another point of view in classifying, and it may perhaps be said to lie in the distinction, too often lost sight of, between classifying books and classifying the writers of those books. In this distinction will clearly be seen the necessity already spoken of for a sense of time values. Here, again, as far as my experience goes, the Library of Congress Scheme stands almost in a class by itself. Not only has the scheme been built up from a fine library, but to one who is constantly using it the sense of future changes and adjustments in the world of scholarship is very evident. This realization is of great importance in a university library, or in such a library as that of the British Museum (if that should ever be classified according to an existing scheme), but it must be admitted that it has hardly the same value in a small public library. Although it has no bearing upon the question here, I may perhaps mention my own opinion that "Dewey" or "Brown" are of much more practical use for small libraries. Hence I cannot entirely agree with the views of those who wish to see every library using the same scheme, although one cannot fail to see that some good would result in such an event,

and that there are, indeed, many arguments in its favour.

Finally may be mentioned the Library of Congress cards. Strictly any consideration of them belongs to the domain of cataloguing, but as the cards bear the class-marks given to the books, they have a bearing here. These class-marks, although they may not always be adopted by other libraries as primary class-marks, can be made good use of for additional marks, and frequently form a very good check on the classifying done in a library.

There are, of course, a thousand and one difficulties which arise in classifying a really great library, many of which are not and probably never can be adequately dealt with in any text-book. Amongst these a few may be particularly noticed. There is, for example, the question of how far to carry the "breaking up" system, which finds such a strong supporter in Mr. Jast. Unless one can carry it out *ad infinitum*, it is evident that one can never point to a given block in a library and state that it contains all the literature dealing with one subject. But most of us are quite clear that we shall never be able to do that, and there are other and perhaps more important conditions to be aimed at. Personally I should be disinclined to break up a set of Migne's *Patrologia*, and, therefore, shall not be able to show all editions of Bede together, for instance. Again I should be strongly opposed to any suggestion of breaking up the *Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum*, although some of the volumes deal with Northern Africa, others with France, and so on. I do not suppose, as a matter of fact, that even the most ardent

supporters of the " breaking up " idea would suggest doing so.

On the other hand many sets have puzzled me. Usually one has a section devoted to Academies, to take one case. But there are good arguments for not placing the Schweich Lectures with the Proceedings of the British Academy. Whether, having taken them away, it is more advantageous to readers to group them with Biblical Archæology or to treat each one independently is a question not easily answered. The publications of the Commission Royale d'Histoire are issued under the auspices of the Belgian Academy. There are arguments for splitting them up and treating each work according to its subject, e.g. the volume on the *Industrie Drapière* can be quite happily placed in Economic History. The publications of the French and various other historical societies present a similar case. If one splits them, however, the difficulty is to know where to stop. Carried out to any considerable extent, one's group of " Academies " becomes an entirely futile one, and yet it is quite impracticable to break up all academy publications.

I think the best solution is to rely as far as possible upon added entries in the subject catalogue. Personally, I go farther and, to the group of Publications of the Record Commissioners, for instance, add a few which are not to be found in the printed lists of such publications. By doing so research students are obviously helped much more than they would be by classifying each of the volumes separately.

What I think may be termed " straight " classification, i.e. classification more or less strictly on the

lines of the schedules of the scheme adopted, should be applied to the ordinary text-books on the open shelves for students' use. If one deviates too much from such tables in this case it is of little use to inform students by notices or lectures or handbooks that the library is classified according to such and such a scheme. Hence if a scheme, whether it be "Dewey" or any other, be adopted, the open access books are perhaps best arranged according to that scheme. About this there can be little question. Beyond this, however, no generalization is possible if the library is to be arranged to serve best the thousand and one demands which scholars of all classes make upon it. It is absolutely certain that to satisfy even a few, and those the most reasonable of these demands, many divergencies from printed tables of classification are essential. These will, perhaps, vary to some extent in different universities, and certainly will vary with different epochs.

This brings us to a point not sufficiently recognized in some libraries: that is, that even when every book in the library is classified, the work is not and never will be completed. Unless the library adjusts itself continually and, one might almost say, incessantly, it will never be satisfactorily classified, even though every book may bear a mark accurately culled from the tables of the scheme in force. A very simple, though probably not the best, illustration occurs to me: had Goldsmith's *Natural History* been classified when it was published it would have been placed quite accurately in Natural History—to-day it is of most interest to the student of English Literature. Exactly the same reasoning must be applied to books of our own time. They will become

of value in different classes as time goes on. Hence I am inclined to depreciate the practice of marking books permanently by gilt tooling. A book so marked with its class-mark cannot be reclassified without spoiling the appearance of the back of the book. Paper labels are unsightly, and either come off or become dirty. White ink, neatly used, is fairly satisfactory and, unless varnished over, can be removed if necessary without much injury to the book. It is not ideal, however, nor is any method known to me, and there is still scope in this field for the inventive mind A thin stamped label, similar to the title labels and of colour harmonizing with the colour of the binding, is probably the best method available at present. It is not very expensive, although if many books require marking it does become an expense to be reckoned with; it is not unsightly, and it can be removed by the binder if necessary and replaced by a new label. Certainly it is vastly better than the paper labelling method.

IX

TABLE OF LOCATIONS

WHATEVER scheme of classification or arrangement is adopted in a library, it is necessary, if the library is large, to compile a table of locations. This table should show where all the parts of any subject may be found. It is almost always impossible to keep all books on any subject together, even if that is one of the main objects of classification, and it is never desirable to do so. Long runs of periodicals, rare books, and undesirable books cannot be shelved on open shelves in a reading room, and thus, even in classified libraries, one may have to pursue the literature of one's subject to four or five corners of a library. The table should be made as simple as possible, and if practicable should be printed and made available for use of the teaching staff and for purposes of general information. The following specimen entries will clearly show the style of such a table:

Subject.	*Location.*	*Class Letter.*
Academies.	Basement.	bAS.
	See also special subjects.	
Aeronautics.	Science Store Room No. 1.	sTL.
Periodicals	Science Store Room No. 2.	sTL.
Aesthetics.	Arts Reading Room.	BH.
Periodicals.	Basement.	bBH.
Agriculture.	Science Reading Room.	S.
Periodicals.	Science Store Room No. 4.	sS.

X

CLASSIFICATION AND HISTORICAL COLLECTIONS

It is impossible here to mention even briefly all the works which a university library should acquire as a basic collection for purposes of historical research, but an outline of the kind of material, and its bearing upon classification, may serve a useful purpose.

The following notes constitute an attempt at a brief outline. From them will be apparent immediately the tremendous divergence from any generally accepted scheme of classification which is really necessary, in theory if not in practice, in a library in which much research is carried out.

Judicial documents, many of which, such as the State Trials, would presumably normally be classified in Law or Sociology, contain much of tremendous importance to the historical student. The great political cases such as the trial of John Hampden and that of Charles 1 occur to one's mind, for example. Apart from such cases the testimony of judicial documents to the social and economic conditions of the period is of great value. Another illustration may still more clearly indicate the importance of these documents, in history. Probably few people using the term "Justice of the Peace" realize or

remember that the original duty (still carried out in Switzerland) of this functionary was to bring the parties to an agreement *before* trial, if possible, and to be, in fact, a *Peace Justice.* Such forgotten facts only emerge from the study of judicial documents as historical material.

In the Elizabethan age the Privy Council was a judicial as well as an administrative body, and its records thus fall into both groups. Clearly defined classification of them is, therefore, impossible, and in a library the three sections (if they exist) of History, Law, and Constitutional History have almost equal claims to these records.

The ordinary administrative documents which we call Parliamentary and Official Papers have been dealt with in another chapter. It may be noted here, however, that in relation to historical research such lists of provinces and officers as the *Notitia Dignitatum* form surveys parallel in many ways to our Domesday Book. The Pipe Rolls should follow, and to these must be added the *Valor Ecclesiasticus*, and the various county visitations. Sheriffs' writs should accompany these. Extent of powers is to be discovered from the Parliamentary Writs, and the financial documents of municipalities, parishes, and of nations themselves are frequently invaluable to a study of local life and conditions.

It must be admitted that the inclusion of all these materials in one group makes a "hash" of any ordinary classification scheme, but it is not of necessity a condemnation of classifying a library. All that it means is, as I have emphasized elsewhere, that the scheme adopted must be moulded to the library and *not* the library to the scheme.

War brings about disturbing conditions among all classes ; hence war despatches, proclamations, orders, announcements, etc., are quite definitely of importance to students of economic as well as pure history. They should be grouped with historical documents, but doing so robs the economic section of much important matter.

Political campaigns produce tremendous outputs of literature, but, as this type of literature is usually so tinged with exaggeration and sometimes with animosity, its value historically is not so great as it might be. The local campaign literature is probably of most value and interest in a local collection; if one exists.

Although it is usually held that diplomatic papers of past ages are not free from the misfortunes already attributed to political campaign literature, there is no doubt that they are essential to a great historical collection. Sorting the true from the false is a matter for the researcher in this instance.

Private documents such as business papers, wills, deeds, land records, rental rolls, and account books are also suitable material for the historical research library and should be diligently collected.

The value of newspapers has long been recognized; although these cannot usually be filed in a history section, and in a general library should not be.

The question of relics, which term is here used to include coins, buildings, medals, brasses; and other archæological remains, brings up the troublesome difficulty of differentiating between anthropology (including pre-historic archæology) and ancient history. Anthropology moves easily into anatomy, and the trouble is intensified if the students of anatomy

are interested in anthropology, as they usually are. Some scholars, of course, contend that anthropology does not exist as a separate subject, but as it usually is treated as one in library classification schemes, we must consider it as such here. There is, in actual fact, no hard and fast line between ancient history and anthropology. All that can be urged, if both sections are to be maintained in a library, is that in classifying an archæological work in one or the other of these classes, if the librarian is not himself a specialist, he should take expert advice; and should on no account entrust the work to an inexperienced assistant.

Finally, pictorial sources of history, best illustrated perhaps by the Bayeux Tapestry, geographical works, and biography, should not be neglected in the history collection. If they cannot be located actually in history as a subject, they should rub shoulders with it on the shelves.

XI

CLASSIFICATION OF CHINESE AND JAPANESE LITERATURE

THE published classification schemes in general use pay little attention to the classification of Chinese and Japanese literature. Probably in the average public library (if such a thing as an average public library exists) there is little or no demand for such attention; and thus all is well. Most of the university libraries, however, must possess classes of this literature. The classification of it is not a matter usually of any great moment fortunately, and, if it were, probably many librarians would find themselves in the position of the writer, who is not competent to compile an adequate scheme for such literature. In view of this state of affairs it seems desirable, rather than vainly attempting to go deeply into the matter, merely to give a list of some works useful to anyone requiring such knowledge. The Chinese, in particular, perhaps, have devoted considerable time and thought to classification. In the Library of the South-Eastern University at Nanking a modification of the very ancient "fourfold" system is in force. A number of other systems are used in various places, but it is worth noticing that in a number of college libraries the Extended Dewey System is used.

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XII

CATALOGUES

In writing of the catalogues for university libraries I have no intention of compiling or retailing a set of rules. Such already abound, and the codes generally in use are satisfactory. My intention is merely to notice a few points which long experience in universities has made obvious.

In the first place the terrific onslaught of the card catalogue has to be faced. In public, and to a very great extent in university libraries, the card catalogue is taking the place of honour and is pushing out all other forms. There can be little doubt that in many cases this is all to the good, and there can be no two views as to the relative ease of maintenance of the card over the page form of catalogue.

On the other hand, the card catalogue is not a favourite form with scholars. There are various reasons for this, but the most noteworthy is the fact (and I think it must be allowed to be a fact, in spite of arguments to the contrary in some library text-books), that the page form allows much easier reference and enables one to see a number of entries in considerably less time, than is possible with even the best card catalogue. On the other hand, a card catalogue is, on the whole, stronger, and will stand more careless handling than will a page catalogue.

This, however, is a statement which is not capable of absolutely general application, since much depends on the quality of the cards, on the cabinets used for the cards, on the material used for the leaves of the page catalogue, on the slips which are affixed to the leaves, and on the method of attachment.

Generally speaking, one of the greatest drawbacks to a card catalogue is that it is impossible to consult it anywhere but in the library to which it belongs, whereas a printed catalogue can be distributed broadcast, and everyone knows what a boon it is to be in possession of the British Museum Catalogue or even the catalogues of smaller libraries such as the London Library or Edinburgh University Library.

Of course it is not quite so true nowadays as it was in the past to say that it is only possible to consult a card catalogue in the library to which it belongs. Nevertheless, in spite of the card distribution by the Library of Congress and other libraries, it is still, and will always be, relatively true. Few libraries are ever likely to be able to afford the space for card catalogues of other libraries, the money to purchase them, the cabinets to contain them, or the staffs to maintain them.

If time and money are available it seems that the requirements of a university library in the way of catalogues can well be served by the provision of (1) a page catalogue (authors) for the use of the teaching staff, (2) a card catalogue (authors also) for students, and (3) a card catalogue (subjects) for general use. As a rule students make very little use of subject catalogues, and it is even doubtful if the value of such a catalogue is at all commensurate with its cost.

Of No. 1 above, i.e. the page catalogue, there are a few points to be noticed. In the first place the old question "to print or not to print?" arises. Personally I have no doubt whatever as to what the answer should be. If the library can by any means obtain sufficient money and has a staff able to carry through this by no means easy task, then it is that library's duty and privilege to print and distribute its catalogue. On the other hand, if either money or a competent staff is lacking, then the question does not really arise. Assuming for a moment that the latter state obtains, it becomes desirable to produce a page catalogue composed of pasted-in slips. The old bound volumes, similar to large newspaper-cutting books or ordinary scrap-books; should never be used nowadays. Large quarto or small folio pigskin covered loose-leaf binders adjustable to any thickness up to; say; nine inches, and thonged, should be employed. A good goatskin parchment, or if this is too dear, a good imitation, will serve as mounting surface for the slips, which should be of thin paper, and should be pasted *right down*, not merely fastened by their ends to the sheet.

The compilation of a catalogue of this type is an expensive matter, and, if it is to be kept up-to-date in strictly alphabetical order, it is also wasteful. Nevertheless, it more nearly approaches the ideal catalogue than any other form.

There are at least two ways of entering the slips in this kind of catalogue in use in this country. One is to divide each page into two columns, pasting down entries to date in the left-hand column and leaving the right-hand column blank for additions. Clearly, however, by this method perfect alphabetization is

impossible ; indeed, in its adoption, realization of this imperfection is an essential and primary factor.

The other method is to use the whole of each page at the outset, spreading the entries over the page, and leaving blanks between most entries. As soon as crowding out becomes a fact and a breakdown of the alphabetical sequence occurs, the whole page is removed, the entries are typed out afresh on new slips, which, together with the additional entries, are then distributed over two or more pages instead of the original one.

This is obviously very wasteful of paper, time, and labour, but it is the only really satisfactory method in a large and rapidly growing library. The first method is the better for a library which grows but slowly, since it will then be a considerable time before the blank right-hand columns are filled up, and the faults in alphabetization are not very serious. But, in a library which adds thousands of volumes yearly, the right-hand blanks are rapidly filled up and redistribution becomes imperative, while at no time is there the advantage of correct sequence of entries.

The thickness of page catalogues of the loose-leaf pattern is a matter which will be governed by circumstances. In a library of medium size, and most of our university libraries may be included in this category, four or five fat volumes of about six or seven inches in thickness will usually suffice to contain all the entries. But if this limitation of volumes is decided upon, then the catalogues must lie open on a ledge or table provided for them. They will be too bulky and awkward to move about or to shelve in the ordinary way. By decreasing the thickness of volumes and consequently increasing their number

this drawback is, of course, overcome, and more readers can use the catalogue at one time.

Card catalogues should be spread over a number of small cabinets rather than crowded into one or two large ones. "Locking" drawers have some advantages, but the disadvantage of readers being unable to remove a drawer when others are consulting adjacent drawers more than outweights the advantages.

The form which a subject catalogue should take has long been a bone of contention. That a subject catalogue in one form or another is necessary may be taken for granted, I suppose, but such a catalogue is rarely as much used as the expense involved in its compilation would seem to make desirable.

The dictionary catalogue, in which authors and subjects are arranged in one alphabetical sequence, has much to commend it and much to condemn it. The alphabetical-classed-catalogue is in about the same position. The separate classified subject catalogue is the most scientific, the easiest to maintain, but is bewildering to many readers. Largely, I think, the trouble arising from the classified catalogue is due to the fact that an index is absolutely essential and that many people cannot distinguish this index from the catalogue itself. No subject catalogue can be satisfactory to all men, and this is particularly true of classified subject catalogues. These depend for their order upon the classification scheme used in the library, and as no classification scheme which can be evolved will ever be entirely and generally satisfactory, it is obvious that catalogues based upon such schemes will be equally unsatisfactory.

Naturally one is governed in making such state-

ments as this by one's own experience and observation.

Personally, I am not at all sure that it can be proved that one form of subject catalogue is better than another from the reader's point of view. Thus, in a dictionary catalogue, books on Insurance would appear under the letter I, books on Taxation under T, books on Money under M, books on Banking under B; while books of a more general type covering all these topics would appear under P, Political Economy, or E, Economics, according to the " decision " made. Thus a lecturer on money matters might have to chase his literature all over the catalogue. On the other hand, in a classified subject catalogue all such literature would appear in one large group, Political Economy, subdivided, of course. The lecturer mentioned is probably a little better off in the latter case. The problem of the " minute " specialist involves the matter, however. This individual is anxious to see in one small place one tiny fraction of a subject and that only. He probably cares nothing for anything else, and for his purposes much might be said in favour of the dictionary catalogue. Even here, however, the number of cross-references necessary in such a catalogue complicate the specialist's work and sometimes hamper it, sending him round the catalogue in chase of many entries which may prove utterly useless ones.

XIII

CATALOGUING

THE STATISTICAL RECORD

In another section I have referred to the statistical appendix to the catalogue of a library, and as this term may not be quite clear to some, its significance and the methods of its compilation may be noticed here.

It is the record which is kept, or always should be kept, of all the cataloguing done in a library. From it may be seen at any time exactly how many cards are in the author catalogue, or, in the case of " pasted in " page catalogues, how many slips have been done, and so on. It also shows the number of works catalogued and the number of volumes represented by those works. Moreover, if properly kept, it provides particulars of the number of works catalogued in any given year. Obviously it is a very important library record indeed, and yet, I believe, it is ignored completely in many libraries.

Assuming that the actual cataloguing is done on slips of paper, which are then handed to a typist to be copied on to cards or on to slips for a page catalogue, the simplest method of compiling the record is perhaps that given below.

On each catalogue slip, away from the actual catalogue entry, the cataloguer should add a note showing the following facts :

(*a*) that the work is a new addition to the library ;

(*b*) that it is an old work recatalogued ;

(*c*) the year of cataloguing (or, if preferred, the actual date).

These notes may be abbreviated, e.g. N29/ would indicate that the work was a new addition and that it was catalogued in 1929. After the / the typist should add a running number for that year, making the full note, e.g. N29/777, or the 777th new work catalogued during 1929. For works recatalogued an O, meaning " old," may be substituted for the N.

In a book kept by the typist for the purpose, the totals at the end of each day's work should be entered, with the addition of details of the number of author cards, subject cards, author slips, and so on. This is a perfectly simple duty, involving merely the ability to count the number of different kinds of entries typed during the day.

Elaborations, such as details of the number of entries in each subject class, may be made as desired.

XIV

DICTIONARY OF ABBREVIATIONS

à froid	à fr.
Abbildung, Abbildungen .	Abb.
abbreviation, abbreviated .	abbr.
Abdruck	Abdr.
abgedruckt . . .	abgedr.
abridged	abr.
Abschnitt . . .	Abschn.
Abteilung . . .	Abt.
Abtheilung . . .	Abth.
accedit	acc.
added	add.
Aflevering. . . .	Afl.
afterwards . . .	aft.
Aktiengesellschaft . .	A. G.
ancienne reliure . .	anc. rel.
and, et, und, *etc.* (in firms) .	&
Angebunden . . .	Angeb.
Anhang	Anh.
Anlage	Anl.
annotated . . .	annot.
Anmerkung . . .	Anm.
anonymous . . .	anon.
annotavit	ann.
Antiqua	Ant.
antique	antiq.

Appendix (appendix) . .	App., app.
Archbishop . . .	Abp.
Auflage	Aufl.
augmenté	augm.
Aus dem Englischen, Französischen, *etc.* . . .	Aus. d. Engl., *etc.*
Ausgabe	Ausg.
ausgewählt . . .	ausgew.
Ausschnit . . .	Aus.
author (s) . . .	auth.
autograph, autographed .	aut.
autographe . . .	autog.
autographiert . . .	autogr.
autorisiert . . .	autor.
Bändchen . . .	Bdch.
Band	Bd.
Bandes	Bdes.
Bande	Bde.
Bände	Bde.
Bänden . . .	Bden.
Bandet	Bd.
basane	bas.
basil	bas.
Bearbeiter . . .	Bearb.
bearbeitet . . .	bearb.
Bearbeitung . . .	Bearb.
bedeutend vermehrt . .	bed. verm.
Beigedruckt . . .	Beigedr.
bibliography . . .	bibl.
Bildnis	Bildn.
Bind	Bd.
Bishop	Bp.
Black Letter . . .	B. L.

Blatt	Bl.
boards	bds.
Bogen	Bog.
broché	br.
broschirt	br.
Brothers	Br.
Buchdruckerei	Buchdr.
Buchhandlung	Buchh.
calf	cf.
carta azzura	ca. azz.
carta grande	ca. gr.
carta velina	ca. vel.
caratteri gotici	carat. got.
carattere tondo	carat. tond.
cartonné	cart.
cartonnage bradel	cart. brad.
centimetres	cent.
century	cent.
chapter	cap.
charta magne	ch. m.
cloth	cl.
cloth boards	cl. bds.
cloth extra	cl. ex.
cloth gilt	cl. gt.
cloth limp.	cl. lp.
coins et fermoir	c. et ferm.
collection, collected	coll.
collegit	coll.
coloriert	col.
coloured plates	cld. pl.
commenced	comm.
compagnie	co.
company	co.

complet	cplt.
complete	cplt.
componiert	comp.
composuit	comp.
contenant	cont.
continued	cont.
corrected, corrections	corr.
correctus	corr.
crown octavo	cr. 8vo.
cuir de Russie	c. d. R.
cum figuris	c. f.
curavit	cur.
datiert	dat.
dedication, *etc.*	ded.
demi-reliure	d. rel.
demy octavo	dem. 8vo.
dentelle, dentellé	dent.
dentelle, intérieure	dent. int.
diagrams	diagr.
dissertation (s)	diss.
dorata sui fogli	dor. sui. fog.
doré sur tranche	d. s. t.
duodecimo	12mo.
duplicate	dup.
edidit, ediderunt	ed.
edited	ed.
editio, edition, edizione	ed.
édition	éd.
editus	ed.
Einband	Einb.
Einleitung	Einl.
emendavit	em.

English	Engl.
enlarged	enl.
engraver, engravings	engr.
enthaltend	enth.
Ergänzungs-Heft, Ergänzungsheft	Erg. H.
erklärend	erkl.
erklärt	erkl.
erläuternd	erl.
erläutert	erl.
Erläuterungsblatt	Erl. Bl.
Erste, *etc.*	1te, *etc.*
erweitert	erw.
esemplare	esempl.
ex recensione	ex rec.
extra	ex.
extracts	extr.
facsimile	facs.
Fasciculus	Fasc.
feet	ft.
feuillets	ff.
Figur	Fig.
figures coloriées	fig. col.
figures sur bois	fig. s. b.
figure, figures, figurato	fig.
filés dorés	f. d.
filets d'or sur les plats	f. d. s. l. p.
filets à compartiments	f. comp.
Fingierter Titel	Fing. T.
first (second, *etc.*)	1st, *etc.*
folgende	folg.
folio	fo., fol.
formerly	form.

fortgeführt	fortgef.
fortgesetzt	fortges.
Fortsetzer	Forts.
Fortsetzung	Forts.
Fraktur	F.
Franzband	Fzbd.
Fratelli	Frat.
frères	fr.
frontispiece	front.
gänzlich umgearbeitet	gänzl. umgearb.
Gebrüder	Gebr.
gebunden	geb.
gedruckt	gedr.
gekrönte Preisschrift	gekr. Preisschr.
German	Germ.
gestochen	gest.
getrennte Paginierung	Getr. Pag.
gezeichnet	gez.
gilt	gt.
gilt edges	g. e.
gilt top edge	g. t.
goldschnitt	gldschn.
gothique	goth.
Government Printing Office	Gov. Pr. Off.
grand papier	gr. pap.
grandes marges	gr. marg.
gravure	grav.
gross	gr.
halbfranzband	hfzbd.
halblederband	hlbld.
halbleinwandband	hblwd.
halbpergamentband	hperg.

half bound	hf. bd.
half calf	hf. cf.
half morocco	hf. mor.
half russia	hf. russ.
Handschrift	Hs.
handschriftlich	hs.
Heft	H.
Heliogravure	Heliogr.
Herausgeber	Hrsg.
herausgegeben	hrsg.
Holzschnitt	Holzschn.
ibidem	ib.
idem	id.
illustration, illustrated	ill.
illustrator	ill.
illustravit	ill.
illustriert	ill.
imperial quarto	imp. 4to.
imprimerie	impr.
inaugurated	inaug.
inches	ins.
incorporated	incorp.
incunabula	incun.
Inhaltsverzeichnis	Inh. Verz.
Interimszettel	Int. Z.
introduction	introd.
Italian	Ital.
Jahrgang	Jg.
joint authors	jt. auth.
klein	kl.
koloriert	kol.

Kommentator	Komm.
Kommissionsverlag von A. B.	A. B. in Komm.
Kompagnie	Ko.
komponiert	komp.
Komponist	Komp.
Kopftitel	Kopft.
Kupferstich	Kupferst.
Kupfertafel	Kupfrt.
Kupfertitel	Kupfert.
large	la.
leaves	ll.
lederband	ldb.
legato alla Bodoniana	leg. bod.
legato in mezza pelle	leg. ½ pel.
legato pelle	leg. pel.
legato in mezza tela	leg. ½ tela.
legatura antico	leg. ant.
legatura clandese	leg. cl.
leinwandband	lwd.
librarian, library	libr.
Lieferung	Lfg.
limp	lp.
lithographer	lithogr.
Lithographie	Lithogr.
lithographisch	lithogr.
livraison	livr.
macchiato	macch.
manoscritto, manoscritti	MS., MSS.
Manuscript, manuscripts	MS., MSS.
Manuskript, etc.	MS.
marbled edges	m. e.
maroquin antique	m. ant.

maroquin bleu	m. b.
maroquin citron	m. cit.
maroquin doublé de tabis	m. d. d. t.
maroquin du Levant	m. d. l.
maroquin noir	m. n.
maroquin rouge	m. r.
maroquin vert	m. v.
maroquin violet	m. viol.
Mémoire couronné	Mém. cour.
mit	m.
Mitarbeiter	Mitarb.
morocco	mor.
morocco lined	m. l.
mouillures et piqûres	mouill. et piq.
Nachfolger	Nachf.
Nachwort	Nachw.
Nebentitel	Nebent.
Neue Folge	N. F.
Neue Reihe	N. R.
new edition	n. ed.
new series	n. s.
no date	n. d.
no place of publication	n. p.
non rogné	n. r.
nouvelle édition	n. éd.
nouvelle série	n. s.
number	no.
numero, Nummer	no, No.
oblong, oblungo	obl.
octavo	8vo.
ohne Jahr	o. J.
ohne Ort	o. O.

ohne Ort und Jahr	o. O. u. J.
original	orig.
ottima conservazione	ott. cons.
out of print	o.p.
Ouvrage couronné	Ouvr. cour.
page	p.
pagina, pagine	pag.
pamphlet (s)	pamph.
papier de Hollande	p. de H.
papier vergé	p. v.
papier vélin	p. vél.
Pappband	Pb.
parchemin, parchment	parch.
pars, part, partie	p.
peau de truie de Russie	p. d. t. d. R.
pergamina	perg.
pergamentband	pgt.
petits fers	pet. f.
photograph (s)	photogr.
Photographie	Photogr.
photographisch	photogr.
piccolo	picc.
plan	pl.
planche	pl.
plate	pl.
portrait	port.
praefatio	praef.
Präsentationstitel	Präsentationst.
Praeses	Praes.
précédé	préc.
preface	pref.
préface	préf.
premier, *etc.*	1er., *etc.*

pseudonym	pseud.
publié	publ.
published	publ.
quaderno	quad.
quarto	4to.
quelques mouillures	qq. mouill.
recensuit	rec.
recognovit	recogn.
recto	r.
red edges	r. edg.
redigiert	red.
Register, register	Reg., reg.
reduced	red.
reprint	repr.
Respondens	Resp.
revidiert	rev.
revised	rev.
royal quarto	roy. 4to.
russia leather	rus.
Saint	St.
Sammlung	Samml.
sämtliche	sämtl.
sans lieu	s. l.
sans lieu ni date	s. l. n. d.
sarsenat taffeta	sars.
scarce	sc.
Schlusstitel	Schlusst.
section	sec.
Seite	S.
Selbstverlag	Selbstverl.
senz' anno	s. a.

sewed	swd.
sheepskin	shp.
signé, signature	sig.
sine anno et typographo	s. a. et t.
sine impressore	s. imp.
sine loco	s. l.
sine loco et anno	s. l. et a.
small	sm.
Société	Soc.
Society	Soc.
Sondertitel	Sondert.
Spalte	Sp.
Spanish	Span.
square	sq.
Stahlstich	Stahlst.
Stereotyp-Auflage	Ster. Aufl.
stereotypiert	ster.
succeeded	succ.
super extra	sup. ex.
super royal octavo	s. roy. 8vo.
Supplement, supplement	Suppl., suppl.
Tabel	Tab.
Tabelle	Tab.
Tafel	Taf.
taglio rosso	tagl. r.
tarlato	tarl.
Teil	T.
Theil	Th.
thick	thk.
Tipografia	Tip.
titre rouge et noir	tit. r. et n.
Tomus, tome, tomo, Tom	T., t.
traduit	trad.

tranches ciselées	tr. cis.
tranches dorées	tr. dor.
tranches marbrées	tr. m.
tranches peignées	tr. p.
tranches rouges	tr. r.
translated	trsl.
translator	trs.
Übersetzt	Übers.
Übersetzer	Übers.
Übersetzung	Übers.
übertragen	übertr.
uitgegeven	uitg.
umgearbeitet	umgearb.
Umschlag	Umschl.
Umschlagtitel	Umschlagt.
unbeschnitten	unbeschn.
und folgende	u. f.
unter dem Titel	u. d. T.
unter der Redaktion	unter d. Red.
unter Mitwirkung	unter Mitw.
various years	v. y.
veau brun, jaspé, *etc.*	v. b., v. jasp., *etc.*
vélin	vél.
vélin de Hollande	vél. d. H.
verbessert	verb.
verfasst	verf.
Verfasser	Verf.
vergriffen	vergr.
vermehrt	verm.
veröffentlicht	veroff.
verso	v.
Veuve	Vve.

vignettes	vign.
vollständig umgearbeitet	vollst. umgearb.
Volumen, volume, volumi	Vol., vol., v.
von	v.
Vorrede	Vorr.
Vortitel	Vort.
Vorwort	Vorw.
with	w.
Witwe	Wwe.
wohlfeil	wohlf.
woodcuts	cuts.
Zeichnung	Zeichn.
zusammengestellt	zsgest.
Zwischentitel	Zwischent.

XV

SPECIAL COLLECTIONS

To be of the utmost service to its users a university library probably cannot possess too many catalogues of other libraries. General catalogues of printed books and special catalogues of manuscripts and other material should be obtained by purchase, exchange, or by begging if they cannot be obtained in any other way. In the same way inventories and calendars of documents should be added to the library on all possible occasions.

This kind of material forms a group which is as useful as almost any group in the library.

In nearly the same category come alumni lists and other university biographical and historical publications. These are available in plenty, and should be found in any large university library.

The special collections with which it is proposed to deal here, however, are I. Periodicals; II. Bindings; III. Early Printed Books; IV. Manuscripts; V. Inscriptions; VI. Local Collections; VII. Parliamentary and Official Papers; VIII. Theses; IX. The Library "Museum and Art Gallery"; X. Portraits. Clearly some of these are not special collections in the strict sense of the term, but only by reason of the fact that they require special catalogues.

XVI

PERIODICALS IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

I

Most libraries, to whatever class they belong, have to face periodically the "periodicals question." This question is one which is not likely to be satisfactorily solved, as far as one can see. Whether a library should spend half, three-quarters, or only a very small percentage of its income on subscribing to periodicals is a question capable, however, of one answer only, unsatisfactory though the answer be:—it depends on the nature of the library users.

It is certain, moreover, that university and other definitely research libraries should devote a larger proportion of their book fund to the purchase of journals and transactions than should the ordinary public library.

Farther than this it is somewhat difficult to generalize at all. One is, perhaps, tempted to go a step further and say that the Arts group should spend less than the Science group. While this is probably broadly true, it is, however, not wholly so. It depends upon the university concerned. Some universities are more definitely "Arts" universities than others, and likewise some, particularly amongst the more recent foundations, are stronger altogether on the Science side.

One fact must be universally admitted—that no university can do its work properly in these days unless the library is well stocked with periodicals. And that is one point in which the university library differs completely from the average public library, which can thrive and render excellent service to the community without possessing a tremendous collection of long sets of periodicals. I am, of course, using the term "periodicals" in its broad and truest sense, by which it includes proceedings, transactions, and other publications of societies and academies, journals, magazines, annuals, and even newspapers.

In some departments of a university library, particularly certain scientific departments, the question almost arises whether it is wise to spend any money on text-books at all, if means are at all limited, so important is it that learned periodicals shall be well represented.

There is no answer to this question except the obvious one that text-books *are* desirable, and that more money *should* be available wherewith to purchase them, but that the periodicals are *essential.*

The difficulty consequent upon the adoption of the principle of purchasing, or obtaining by some means, as many periodicals as possible, is, of course, that of shelving them. In the existent text-books of library economy many admirable methods of storing books are given. Nevertheless, in many of our great university libraries I see but two answers to the problem, neither of them being strictly concerned with the adoption or otherwise of certain kinds of shelving, such as are usually recommended. Rolling bookcases and similar methods solve the

problem for a few years, no doubt, but at best they are temporary reliefs only.

It seems to me that within the next half century, if university libraries are to continue to take as many periodicals as they do at present, and to buy back sets when opportunities arise, most of them will either have to face the problem of building on no small scale or else will have to adopt a "farming-out" principle.

This latter method, much as one deprecates the impoverishing of the general university library, has, one must admit, much in its favour. The scientist is happiest and, indeed, does most of his work in the laboratory, and there is undoubtedly much to be said for having the "research" periodicals in a place at his hand.

After all the botanical periodicals, for example, are provided mainly, if not entirely, to further the interests and to support the work of the botanical department, and if this work can be accomplished to better advantage by having the periodicals shelved in the department, then there can be no entirely satisfactory reason for them being shelved elsewhere. This is obviously more particularly true, if that were possible, if the library shelves are over-full.

In the adoption of this method, in my opinion, lies the solution of the shelving problem in the future.

Like everything else, the matter is open to abuse, but no sane person would carry it to such lengths as to do away with the general university library altogether, or even to seriously hamper the library. The periodicals would, in any case, still form part of the university library and would be under the control of the library staff. In addition, they would remain,

as before, available, on demand, to workers outside the department concerned.

Various small, but some of them important, points would arise, notable among them being the possibility of the department making a small grant from its own funds towards the support of the section, in return for the advantages it obtained.

II

Within the last few years a two-volume catalogue of Scientific Periodicals in libraries has been issued. The main drawback to this catalogue is that it starts at 1900, and thus it is of no use for periodicals which had ceased publication by that date. A committee has now set to work to produce a (complete as far as possible) catalogue of periodicals in British university and college libraries. A cataloguer is already at work for this committee, and the catalogue, when it is finished, will be a compilation of the greatest service to all libraries. The lines which the catalogue will take will be clearly apparent from the subjoined rules for its compilation :

General Instructions for Compiling the List of Periodicals in the University Libraries.

1. The recognized methods of cataloguing will be followed so far as they apply (e.g. three dots . . . to show a break in the title ; round brackets ( ) for information obtained from some part of the book other than the title-page ; square brackets [ ] for information supplied by the cataloguer). An arrow will be used after volume numbers and dates to signify that the set is " in progress."

2. The following items are to be included :

(*a*) All publications of a periodical nature, whether published by an official body or not.

(*b*) All publications which are issued at regular or irregular intervals, whether or not they have a running number. The following are examples of the type of publication to be included :

Early English Text Society [Publications].
Ray Society [Publications].
Worcestershire Historical Society [Publications].
Carnegie Institution of Washington [Publications].
Memoirs of the Geological Survey of Great

AUTHOR'S NOTE.

It is thought that the Instructions given on pages 84-88 have not been printed elsewhere. They are included here, quite unofficially, because by their exellence and utility they merit (quite apart from their primary purpose) at least partial adoption by many libraries.

(*b*) Lists of members of societies containing no other material.

(*c*) Booksellers' and publishers' lists.

4. The following information is to be given :

(*a*) The first word of the title of the periodical and as much more as may be necessary for purposes of identification.

(*b*) The entry for a periodical issued by a society must contain the full name of that society, whether such name appears on the title page or not.

(*c*) Place of publication, in the form in which it appears on the title-page.

(*d*) The numbers of the volumes contained in the library. If the volumes are not numbered but are described by a date, this date must be given in the place of the volume number, whether or not this date is the same as that of publication.

(*e*) Date of publication.

(*f*) If the set in the library is in progress, the number and the date of the first volume in the set will each be followed by an arrow. If the set in the library is not in progress, or if the periodical has ceased publication, the earliest and the latest volume numbers and dates will be given.

(*g*) If *absolutely reliable* information is available that the periodical ceased publication after a certain volume, this information should be given in one of the following forms: "*No more published*," if the library concerned contains the complete set, or "*No more published after Vol.* ——," if the set concerned ceases before the last volume issued. In the latter case, the date also should be given.

(*h*) When it is known that a periodical, which has ceased publication, was incorporated with another periodical, this information should be shown in the following manner: "*After volume* —— *this periodical was incorporated with* ——"

(*i*) When the title of a periodical states that any other periodical has been incorporated with it, this fact must be noted in a footnote.

5. Where the title of a periodical changes, the change is to be shown in the following manner:

(*a*) The journal of science and the arts. 1–6. London, 1816–19.

continued as :

(*b*) The quarterly journal of literature, science and the arts. 7—New series 22. London, 1819–27.

6. Cross references will not be made until the final editing is done.

7. All imperfections are to be noted as briefly as possible (i.e. by volumes or parts, and not by individual pages). The following method of showing missing volumes and parts is to be adopted :

wants 10 $\frac{6,\ 9\text{–}12,\ 14}{\ }$; 11 $\frac{4}{\ }$; 27

wants 5 (1834) ; 10–15 (1839–44)

or

(*a*) wants ——, (*b*) wants ——.

8. Names of editors are not to be given, unless they form part of the actual title of the book, as in the case of *Virchow's Archiv für pathologische Anatomie* and *Justus Liebig's Annalen der Chemie.*

9. All entries are to be in the script employed on the title-page (i.e. if Russian, Greek, Oriental, etc.; they are not to be transliterated). This does not apply to German script.

10. If the title is given in two or more languages, both or all of these are to be entered in the order in which they appear on the title-page or title-pages. This should be done in a note: " There is a second title (or title-page), ——;" or " There are two other titles, —— and ——."

11. All notes added by the cataloguer are to be underlined.

12. Periodicals included in libraries which are housed in a university library, but do not form part of that library, are only to be catalogued if the university librarian gives permission. All such

periodicals are to be marked with a large cross (X) before the stamped name of the university library at the top of the slip.

It may be noticed that sets of publications such as those of the Carnegie Institution of Washington are to be included. This institution is really hardly in the same category as the Early English Text Society. It is now, in fact, somewhat similar to a publishing firm, and series such as the *Home University Library* might almost as reasonably be included under 2 (b).

On the other hand, calendars of universities are not to be included, although these are more definitely "annuals" and sometimes contain a good deal of matter which is of use to other universities. Lists of members of societies which contain no other material are also excluded. This will perhaps lead to complications, for frequently in the first year or so of a society's life nothing else is published, but later on more information is included.

Under 8 the *Annalen der Chemie* is given as Justus Liebig's. . . .

This is, of course, correct, but if it is to be carried out and the entries are to appear strictly under *Justus*, little good will be served. One might suggest that *Annalen* is the more reasonable heading, or at least *Liebig* rather than *Justus*.

It is never desirable to be critical where an excellent scheme is concerned, but it is the very excellence in this case which tempts one to make these few suggestions.

XVII

COLLECTION OF BOOKBINDINGS

A

SUGGESTIONS FOR ARRANGEMENT AND CLASSIFICATION

ONLY a small group of libraries in this country has the material for a special collection of bindings. This group is not confined to a particular class of libraries, but it does include a number of university libraries, hence the subject comes within the scope of this work.

There is little need to compile an elaborate scheme for the arrangement of bindings, and to attempt to recommend a scheme for universal adoption would be futile. Any arrangement must depend purely upon (*a*) the collection as a whole, and (*b*) upon the facts connected with the bindings which it is desired to emphasize.

In the first place a general class-mark is necessary. This, of course, may take any shape or form, either a letter or a figure serving the purpose. The letters *Bnd* are recommended, however, as being easy to remember and also as clearly indicating the class.

Within the class itself the arrangement may take various forms, illustrating points of particular interest. A scheme should be built up which will most easily and clearly demonstrate the strong points of the collection. For instance, if the collec-

tion is particularly strong in bindings bearing armorial book stamps, one section would be made up of those, sub-arranged by country and date, or date and country, or in the manner best suited to the collection. On the other hand, the collection might contain an illustrative group of French bindings, in which event this might form the signpost from which to proceed.

In the first case above a class-mark might be Bnd/ARM.E7D9, which would indicate " Collection of Bindings, armorial, English, Dudley (i.e. Robert Dudley)."

In the second case one might be Bnd/FR.B50G8, indicating " Collection of Bindings, French, 1550, Grolier."

In this way a scheme suited to a particular collection may be built up with ease. Moreover, this method of procedure has the great advantage that, once grasped, it can be applied with assurance and without tedious reference to long tables of classification. Without any breakdown a compromise, or rather a combination of arrangements, may be adopted in one and the same collection: some bindings being grouped and lettered as " armorial," " panel stamps," etc., while others may be arranged by country, and so on.

There would be no point in setting out here elaborate tables of arrangement, as any librarian can easily compile a scheme suited to the bindings in his collection, varying it as occasion and common sense demand.

The general method indicated in the foregoing notes proves very satisfactory from every point of view in the Library of the University of St Andrews,

which happens to possess an exceedingly interesting and valuable collection of bindings. It is hardly necessary to add that in order to maintain a complete subject catalogue it is essential to classify each book in the Bindings Collection in the ordinary way, as well as giving it a binding-mark. Duplicate entries are then made, one being filed under the ordinary class-mark in the subject catalogue and the other in the special catalogue of bindings. Additional entries may be made if the binding is of interest from several points of view, e.g. country of origin, and panel stamps. Elaboration, however, depends, clearly, on the value of the collection, the time at the librarian's disposal, and the interest of the librarian in the subject. Perhaps it depends most of all on the last factor, for much or little may be made of even an exceptionally good collection, according to the measure of the librarian's interest.

The literature of bookbindings is exceedingly interesting and in no small degree educative. As a hobby for a librarian the study of this side-line of his work has few rivals, involving as it does matters of historical and genealogical interest, art in many forms, symbolism, and heraldry. Study of the reproduction and preservation of bindings inevitably follows a keen interest in the bindings themselves, and thus, merely taking the fact that the librarian's duty is to preserve literature, time devoted to bindings is not lost.

B

DESCRIPTION OF BOOKBINDINGS

In libraries possessing books of which the bindings are of outstanding interest or value it is desirable

that adequate descriptions should be made of the bindings. If possible the descriptions should be published. The publication presents little difficulty when once the descriptions have been written; indeed a number of libraries, in this country as well as abroad, have already issued excellent annotated catalogues of their bindings.

The following notes, it is hoped, provide a suitable guide to the description of bindings in a special catalogue. It has been assumed, it is perhaps necessary to add, that the arrangement of the entries will be by country, sub-arranged by period, but if some other general arrangement is adopted it is only necessary to alter the index entries accordingly.

Main Entry.

1. Boards :
   (*a*) oak, beech, paste, pulp, or other ;
   (*b*) bevelled or not ;
   (*c*) condition.
2. Covering material : leather, vellum, etc.
3. Size (including note of size of back).
4. Clasps, straps, bosses, chains, etc. :
   (*a*) original number ;
   (*b*) present number and condition.
5. Upper side :
   (*a*) detailed description, with sizes of panels and other ornaments ;
   (*b*) present condition, notes of repairs, etc.
6. Lower side : ditto.
7. Back :
   (*a*) general description ;
   (*b*) details of bands ;
   (*c*) condition.

8. Note of MS. or printed material sewn in back.
9. End-papers.
10. Name of binder. State evidence. This should be given here for convenience of reference, even if obvious from above entries.
11. Date of binding (not necessarily date of panel stamps). State evidence.
12. Particulars of the work itself: author, title, place, date, printer, and any other desirable details.
13. History of the book: previous ownership.
14. References:
    (*a*) to other works in the library bound by the same binder;
    (*b*) to other bindings having similar stamps, but not necessarily bound by the same binder;
    (*c*) to standard works of reference, other catalogues, etc.

In addition to the main entry it is desirable in a catalogue of bindings that the undermentioned index entries should be made:

1. By date, irrespective of country.
2. Binders.
3. Armorial bindings.
4. Chained bindings.
5. Panel bindings.
6. Cameo bindings, and/or other special.
7. Bindings containing MSS., etc.

If the arrangement of the catalogue is not by country, then the index entries will vary correspondingly. Other indexes may, of course, be made; these will naturally depend upon the collection which is being catalogued.

XVIII
EARLY PRINTED BOOKS

FAR too much importance has been and continues to be attached to dates, in collections of early printed books. I refer, of course, to the generally accepted dates of 1500 for incunabula, and 1640 for early English books. These dates serve their purpose admirably, except for the limitation which has come to be regarded as almost essential in libraries. The librarian even seems to exist who fears to have in his early printed collections any books bearing a date later than 1640. This is, in my opinion, rank nonsense, and is the very antithesis of the ideas held, I imagine, by those bibliographers who directly or indirectly have brought about this state of affairs.

There should be no date limit at all for the *whole* of an early printed collection, in my view. The ideal collection would contain specimens of the earliest printing in all countries and towns, whether early or late in date. London could quite reasonably stop at 1600 or even 1550, but there is, of course, no objection to be raised to 1640.[1] Edinburgh,

[1] "For those [books] published before the end of 1640 . . . there are two reasons for giving printers' names. In the first place, the printer was sometimes the owner of the copyright, and the nominal publisher only his agent; secondly, a kind of agreement has been made among many of the chief libraries, that by means of special catalogues they will enable the history of printing in England to be written with absolute fullness down to the year 1640, and any bibliographer who is able to help in this good work is bound to do so." (A. W. Pollard in *Book-lover's Mag.* v. 7, p. 269.)

however, might go to 1700 in Scottish libraries. Constantinople to 1750 or even later, and so on.

By this method only can an even elementary idea of the spread of printing, and thus the history of the art, be shown by an early printed collection in a library. After all it is the *history* of printing which it is the primary business of such a collection, roughly at least, to indicate, and any library which, having the possibility within its grasp, does not attempt this, is, to put it mildly, not helping the causes of bibliography and literary history as it might.

It is not suggested, of course, that this method be carried to absurdity or one would get a larger early printed collection than the general collection, but no harm would be done to the latter by having on special shelves, as far as the contents of the library permit, the first three books printed in each town, irrespective of date. In a large library the resultant collection would give a general view of the spread and progress of printing, and would be most useful for historical bibliography. National and university libraries are obviously most suitable for the formation of such a collection. Thus, although clearly this is not the place to treat in detail of early printed books, the literature of which is already extensive, a scheme for the arrangement of a collection in a university library, and some notes, are thought worth including. Few, if any, of the works written about early printed books give a scheme of numbering and arranging the books on the shelves. It is hoped that the scheme recommended below may save librarians a certain amount of time in evolving schemes. It has been adopted in St Andrews University Library and has stood the test of practical application and

use well, more by reason of its extreme simplicity and obviousness than from any particular merit.

Probably it is hardly necessary to remark that it is assumed that all librarians are now following the "natural history" method of arrangement by country, subdividing by town and by printer.

Suggested Scheme of Arrangement of Early Printed Books.

A. England, Scotland, Ireland and Wales to be kept together and called Britain. Arrangement to be by town, alphabetically.

B. By adopting this arrangement and using blocks (dummies), collected at the end of the "Britain" run, for books in English printed abroad, all the works which might be included in a catalogue of early English books are brought together, in very convenient form for (1) illustrating the evolution of printing in Britain, (2) for checking with the *Short-title Catalogue*, Sayle, B.M. Catalogue, etc.

C. The letters Typ (typographical collection) should be written in front of each early printed class-mark, in order that no confusion may arise between such marks and ordinary class-marks in use in the library.

D. The letter B may be adopted as the class-letter for Britain and a similar letter (the first) for the name of a town, thus: BO=Oxford, BE=Edinburgh, and so on.

E. Under each town the arrangement should be chronological, using short date-tables, such as:

A =1400–1499
B =1500–1599
C =1600–1699
D =1700–1799

With this table the class-mark of a 1545 Edinburgh book might read Typ/BE.B45.

F. Further subdivision by printer may be arranged by assigning to each book an additional letter, as B =Bryson.

G. A number of books printed in the same town in the same year and by the same printer may conveniently be differentiated by adding the first letter of the author's name, e.g. R for Rollock. The whole mark then would read: Typ/BE.B45BR.
Such a class-mark as this, although somewhat long, is self-explanatory to anyone having even an elementary idea of the scheme of arrangement.

H. Other countries may be arranged in exactly the same manner, both rapidly and conveniently, as F =France, I =Italy, etc.

I. Needless to say the scheme is not perfect, and when two countries have names which begin with the same letter, as Spain and Switzerland, a complication arises. Obviously it is not a serious one, however, and various methods of surmounting it immediately occur to one, such as S6 for Spain and S9 for Switzerland.

J. The collection as a whole may be placed on the shelves in alphabetical order, which simplifies finding, and has no serious drawbacks historically.

K. Naturally, in addition to the early printed mark each work will have a subject class-mark, according to the classification scheme in use in the library.

L. Books in English printed abroad should be arranged under the country and town in which they were produced. For every work in this category a block should be titled and placed in its order at the end of the B (Britain) collection.[1]

M. It is not recommended that books printed in the 15th century should be kept together as a collection of incunabula. A block may be titled for each incunabulum, however, and a dummy collection built up if it is thought desirable. In such a case the arrangement may be by early-printed marks, with the letters *Inc* written on another panel of the block.

CATALOGUING

The subjoined list of entries and index entries to be made in a catalogue of early-printed books is to some extent arbitrary. In many cases it will be found too full and, on the other hand, in some libraries other entries may be desirable. It is thought, however, that on the whole, it may be safely adopted as a general guide.

List of Entries and Index Entries.

1. Full entry under author. Arrange by early-printed mark.
2. Index entry under author. Arrange alphabetically by authors' names.

[1] Use ordinary Typ. mark but with (B) in front.

3. Chronological index. Sub-arrange by country and town.
4. Index entry under printers. Arrange alphabetically by printers' names.
5. Index entry under places, e.g. Oxford, Basle, etc. (*not* by country, *vide* 1).
6. Index of Short-title Catalogue numbers.
7. Index of books not in Short-title Catalogue.
8. Index of Aldis numbers, for Scottish books.
9. Index of books not in Aldis.
10. Index of B.M. numbers.
11. Index of books not in B.M.
12. Index of books not in Sayle (often important for lack of good bibliographical description).
13. Index of Hain and Supplements numbers.
14. Index of books not in Hain and Supplements.
15. Index of Gesamtkatalog numbers.
16. Index of books not in the Gesamtkatalog.
17. Index of printers' devices.
18. Notes on bindings.
19. Notes of local interest.
20. Index of former owners (include book plates, etc.).
21. Index of portraits.
22. Index of books removed from (or still in) other special collections in the library.
23. List of abbreviations of printers' names.
24. Notes of watermarks.

Notes on Cataloguing.

It is of primary importance to give a really good bibliographical description of any work for which none is readily available. In doing so great care should be taken to notice peculiarities in the copy catalogued. The late Gordon Duff, than whom few,

if any, had more knowledge of such works, inclined to the idea that the names of places of printing and publication should be written in the English form, irrespective of that adopted on the works. I am of the opinion, however, that there is no really good reason for this, and, moreover, that to do so tends to decrease the value of the entry. He also recommended that the date should invariably be given in Arabic figures. My preference is for giving the date exactly as it appears on the book (if it does appear), and adding, in parenthesis, where any doubt exists as to the exact year, the Arabic form. No doubt, however, these are merely points of personal preference, and they are noted with no idea of criticizing the views of one for whose work I have great admiration.

There would be no gain by labouring these notes, since numerous works on describing early-printed books already exist. It may be noted, in conclusion, that Sayle's Catalogue remains unsurpassed as a model of what such a catalogue should be.

Bibliographical Note.

At the request of the Library Association, Dr. Guppy prepared what he too modestly describes as "Suggestions for the cataloguing of incunabula." The suggestions or, better, instructions, were published in volume 8 of the *Bulletin of the John Rylands Library*, 1924, and I cannot do better than heartily recommend that anyone faced with the problem of cataloguing incunabula first of all digests what Dr. Guppy has to say on the matter and then follows out his suggestions. Further than this one might almost say that it is quite essential to read (whatever else

one may read) two valuable papers in the *Transactions of the Bibliographical Society.* These two papers are: (1) *Some points in bibliographical description,* by A. W. Pollard and W. W. Greg, and (2) *Degressive bibliography,* by Falconer Madan. Both are printed in volume 9, 1906-08. It is surprising how little that is of importance is left undealt with in the three works cited. Printed together they would form a very valuable guide to bibliographical description.

XIX

MANUSCRIPTS

THE care and cataloguing of manuscripts are subjects usually not dealt with at any length in the standard manuals of librarianship. There are, of course, many admirable works devoted to manuscripts, in which chapters are included on cataloguing and treatment.

The staff of a modern university library or of a borough library is unlikely to be called upon to deal with many early or mediæval manuscripts, but the staff of any university library should be, and in most cases is, quite capable of dealing with those in their library. Unfortunately this is not always the case, however, but apart from any such questions there is justification for including notes on a subject which, after all, is undoubtedly a department of librarianship, in any such book as this. Thus the following notes, which have nothing particularly new about them, may perhaps indicate where much of the information which a librarian should be acquainted with on this subject may be found.

In the first place it is not proposed to give here a code of rules for cataloguing manuscripts. To do so would be merely to repeat what has already been well done and would serve no really useful purpose, but would only increase the size of the book. It is the business of these notes simply to indicate where

really satisfactory instruction and advice may be obtained.

Among the numerous works devoted to the study of manuscripts there is one which is particularly suited to a librarian's needs. This work has the additional advantage of being by a librarian, and a librarian whose experience and knowledge peculiarly fit him for the object he had in view. No librarian seeking instruction in the treatment and cataloguing of the western manuscripts under his care can do better than make the fullest possible use of Falconer Madan's *Books in Manuscript.* Section 4 of Chapter X of that work is devoted to cataloguing and sets out admirably both method and order.

As far as the repair or restoration of old manuscripts are concerned, one can say without hesitation that only the most experienced and advanced hand should attempt such work. Even then the work will be entered upon only with trepidation and fear. The standard text-books on the care of manuscripts give, as a rule, some instructions in this matter, but young assistants should never attempt to follow them out unless they are acting directly under the eye of a very experienced person. On the other hand, although the subject is not one within the scope of the Library Association examinations, all assistants are recommended to study it. It is true that probably many of them will never be called upon to make practical use of the knowledge gained, but the time will not have been entirely lost in any case.

Reproductions of miniatures, odd pages, and so on, of manuscripts may usefully be kept in the library's "museum" collection rather than with the manuscript collection itself. It then becomes advisable,

however, to have with the latter a brief list of such items and a note of their location marks.

Books in manuscript, and not documents, signed letters, and so on, have been referred to above. In dealing with this latter class of manuscripts, assistants are strongly recommended to study the little manual on the subject published by Mr. Fitzpatrick, in order to gain a good general idea of the work. This little work forms an admirable guide.

Autographs and inscriptions found in books should always be recorded carefully, and Mr. Fitzpatrick's rules may also be applied to such matter.

XX

INSCRIPTIONS

MANY university and college libraries contain inscriptions. Some, of course, only possess one or two, but in others quite a number are to be found. The question as to whether these are rightly placed under the care of librarians is not of great importance, although it is occasionally discussed. If they are housed in a library, then they form part of the library "museum," and, beyond making them available within reasonable restrictions, the librarian usually need not bother further about them.

It sometimes happens, however, that copies of inscriptions are required for study or for publication. Photography, of course, is the usual method resorted to by a librarian who is asked for such copies, but the archæologist is not always satisfied with this method. Copies made by hand are often very satisfactory, but are not so easily produced as might be imagined. There is only one correct way to produce copies of hieroglyphics by hand, and for this the ground work is a dry squeeze. Those who have no experience of taking a dry squeeze are recommended to study carefully the applicable chapters of the valuable little handbook issued by the British Museum with the title *How to Observe in Archæology*. By doing so a good deal of trouble will be avoided and some valuable time saved.

No university library is complete without a good deal of literature *about* inscriptions, even if no actual inscriptions are in the library at all. Curiously enough most of the classification schemes evolved for use in libraries place inscriptions in classes unsuitable from the university point of view. For example, in the Library of Congress Scheme inscriptions go into Class C, Auxiliary Sciences of History. Theoretically this is, no doubt, correct, but the Greek scholar is not likely to be happy if he finds his literature in PA, Greek and Latin, his inscriptions in C, his philosophy in B, his history in DF, and the bibliography of his subject in Z!

In a university library, at any rate, if any of the generally accepted classification schemes is adopted, compromises are absolutely essential. Greek inscriptions must be somewhere near to Greek literature, and so on.

XXI

UNIVERSITY LOCAL COLLECTIONS

Almost all university libraries have either local collections or, if the arrangement of the library does not permit of drawing all books of local interest together, catalogues or lists of local literature. In a few cases these local collections are partially duplicated in the public libraries of the towns. This is notably the case at Aberdeen. Unless the rivalry develops an unpleasant side, and this is unlikely ever to be the case, there is no reason why two or more local collections should not exist in one town. The university will probably be in a better position as regards collecting works by members of the university than the public library and should make an effort to obtain copies of all such works, whether by past or present members. By reason of this advantage, it is absolutely incumbent upon the university librarian to form a local collection.

Photographs of members of the staff, both teaching and official, should be added to the collection, and should, in fact, form one of its most important parts when taken together with its biographical section.

This biographical section may usually be built up with ease as far as present day members of the university are concerned, since the bulk of those in high positions in the university will be found in

Who's Who. Of course, appeal to the individuals themselves may be made. For past members the various biographical dictionaries will usually produce a good harvest.

Many photographs of university buildings are available in almost every case, and these, even in the shape of picture post cards, should be zealously collected. Sometimes, indeed, when alterations have been made, picture post cards of buildings and places constitute very important historical material. They have the advantage of cheapness, and often the librarian finds himself with little enough money to spend on his " fad " (?) of local collecting.

All matter connected in any way with the university should be carefully preserved in the local collection, unless the university has a separate muniment room. In that case it becomes a little difficult to draw a line between the local collection and material for the muniment room.

Local collections themselves have been dealt with on several occasions by writers probably better fitted than I to write about them, and anyone seeking detailed information on the subject will find no lack of material and of sound advice. Hence I shall content myself here with listing some of the headings which may, more or less reasonably, be used in the catalogue of a local collection. They are subject, of course, to variation with the town.

LIST OF HEADINGS

Abattoirs. *See* Slaughter-houses.
Almshouses and workhouses.
Ambulance service.
Amusements. *See also* Theatres, Cinemas, etc.

Antiquities. Sub-divided: (1) General, (2) City, (3) Cathedral, (4) Blackfriars, (5) Greyfriars, etc. *See also* University.

Bathing beaches; bathing facilities, etc.
Benevolent and moral institutions and societies.
Bibliography. *See also* Printers *and* Binders.
Binders.
Biography. Collective. *See also* separate headings, as University, etc.
Biography-Portraits. *See also* separate headings, as University, etc.
Bombardment.
Boundaries.
Bridges.
Buildings. General works.
Business associations.

Cafés. *See* Hotels, taverns, etc.
Capture.
Carnivals. *See* Festivals, etc.
Cemeteries.
Census.
Centennial celebrations, etc. (Civic). *See also* University, etc.
Charities.
Charters, grants, privileges (Civic). *See also* University, etc.
Church history. *See also* Antiquities.
Churches. *See also* Religious and ecclesiastical institutions; Antiquities.
Cinemas. *See* Theatres.
City Hall.
Civic improvement.
Climate.

Clubs.
Commerce.
Commercial institutions. *See* Business associations.
Conservatories of music, etc.
Conventions and public meetings.
Cricket. *See* Amusements.
Cries.
Curling. *See* Amusements.
Customs. *See* Social life and customs.

Description :
    Guide-books.
    Maps.
    Poetry.
    Views. *See also* Antiquities.
Directories. *See also* Registers.
Directories—Telephone.
Dispensaries.

Ecclesiastical institutions. *See* Churches ; Religious and ecclesiastical institutions ; Antiquities.
Economic conditions.
Evening and continuation schools.
Executive departments.
Exhibitions.

Fairs.
Festivals, etc.
Fires and Fire prevention.
Floods.
Football. *See* Amusements.
Foreign population.
Fountains.

Galleries and museums. *For* University, *see* University.

Games. *See* Amusements.
Gates.
Genealogy. *See* Biography.
Golf Clubs. *See* Clubs.
Government, Local.
    Official employees :
        Appointment, qualifications, tenure, etc.
Government publications.
Guide-books. *See* Description—Guide-books.
Guilds.

Harbour.
Historic Houses, etc. *See also* Antiquities.
History.
History—Fiction.
History—Military.
Hockey. *See* Amusements.
Hospitals.
Hotels, taverns, etc.

Industrial schools.
Industries.
Intellectual life.

Learned institutions and societies.
Libraries. *See also* University.
Lighting.
Links, Golf. *See also* Amusements.
Literary and scientific institutions, etc. *See* Learned institutions and societies.
Livery companies.
Lodging houses. *See* Hotels, taverns, etc.

Manners and customs. *See* Social life and customs.
Manufactures. *See* Industries.
Maps. *See* Description—Maps.

Markets. *See also* Fairs.
Medical statistics. *See* Statistics, *Vital.*
Monuments.
Moral conditions.
Morgues.
Museums. *See* Galleries and museums.

Name. *See also* Antiquities.

Occupations.
Office buildings.
Official publications. *See* Government publications.
Official employees. *See* Government, local.
Orphan and orphan asylums. *See also* Charities.

Palaces.
Parishes. *See also* Wards.
Parks.
    Arranged alphabetically.
Paving. *See* Streets.
Police.
Politics and government.
Poor.
Population. *See* Census.
Printers and printing.
Prisons and reformatories.
Provosts. *See also* Biography.
Public baths.
Public buildings.
Public comfort stations.
Public lands.
Public laundries.
Public life.
Public meetings. *See* Conventions and public meetings.

Public schools. *See* Schools.
Public works.

Registers. *See also* Directories.
Religious and ecclesiastical institutions. *See also* Churches.
Riots.

Sanitary affairs.
Scientific institutions. *See* Learned institutions and societies.
Seal (Civic). *See also* University.
Sepulchral monuments. *See* Monuments.
Sewerage.
Siege. *See* Bombardment ; Capture.
Slaughter-houses.
Social conditions.
Social life and customs.
Social life and customs—Illustrations.
Stables.
Statistics.
Statistics, Medical. *See* Statistics, Vital.
Statistics, Vital.
Stock-yards.
Storm.
Street cleaning.
Streets.
    Arranged alphabetically.
Suburbs.
Surveys.
Synagogues. *See* Churches.

Tennis. *See* Amusements ; Parks.
Theatres, cinemas, etc. *See also* Amusements.
Tombs. *See also* Churches ; Cemeteries ; Antiquities.
Topography. *See* Description.

Trades and Trades Associations. *See* Business.

University.
    Sub-arranged by Colleges and Departments.
    Sub-arranged as necessary according to this local scheme.

Views. *See* Description—Views.
Vital Statistics. *See* Statistics, Vital.
Voters.
Voting precincts.

Walls.
Wards. *See also* Parishes.
Water-supply.

XXII

PARLIAMENTARY AND OFFICIAL PAPERS

THE multitudinous papers and other official documents published by the British Government, to be found in large libraries, form a collection through which it is usually not easy, even for librarians, to find their way. That is probably the main reason why in a good number of libraries Parliamentary papers are not catalogued, or, at any rate, not all catalogued, and are stored away in boxes. "Out of sight, out of mind" is the expression I have heard used in reference to these publications, but such a "method" of dealing with them is, of course, merely postponing the work and is assuming complications, which, even if they exist, as they probably do, can be overcome without very much trouble.

It may perhaps be of some little assistance to workers in libraries to set out in some detail the various classes of official documents. There are seven of them, and the distinction between some of them is not as clearly defined by the titles as it might be. The classes are :

1. Parliamentary Publications.
2. Parliamentary Debates.
3. Proceedings of Parliament : issued for Members.

4. Proceedings of Parliament: permanent bound volumes.
5. Journals of Parliament.
6. Statutory Rules and Orders.
7. Stationery Office Publications.

The first class is composed of (*a*) the well-known Command Papers, (*b*) the House of Commons Papers, and (*c*) House of Lords Papers.

Many assistants have no doubt been puzzled, while more or less understanding what Command Papers are, by the fact that on some of them only C and a number is given, on others Cd plus a number, and on others Cmd and a number. The explanation is, of course, simple, and lies in the fact that there are three series. These series are consecutive and C, Cd, and Cmd have merely been adopted to save using unduly long numbers, thus:

C1–C9550	are papers issued from				1870–1899
Cd 1–Cd9239	,,	,,	,,	,,	1900–1918
Cmd 1	,,	,,	,,	,,	1919–

Presumably in time we shall have a fourth series with, perhaps, Comd as series-mark.

Some confusion may arise from the inconvenient method of numbering House of Commons Papers, but this is really inconsiderable if it is remembered that the numbers run for a session only. Thus it becomes necessary to quote both session and number for identification purposes.

The annual volumes of Parliamentary Papers consist of the two foregoing classes bound together. There is usually a great output of these papers, for frequently over a hundred volumes are issued

annually. The adopted arrangement within the volumes is—(1) Public Bills, (2) Reports of Committees, (3) Reports of Commissioners, (4) Accounts and Papers. It is fortunate that indexes have been published to these Parliamentary Papers, but they are a little complicated. An annual index is issued each year, but there are also decennial indexes from 1801 onwards. Libraries should possess, however, the three-volume index which covers the period 1801–1852. The first volume deals with Bills, the second with Reports of Committees, and the third with Reports of Commissioners, Accounts and Papers.

It is perhaps not generally known that another large index was issued in 1909, but that libraries should shun it. It was put out to contract by the Stationery Office, instead of being compiled by the Library Staff in the House of Commons, and the compilers omitted to include the numbers of the papers. Unfortunately the omission was not detected until the index had been printed, so that although it was issued on September 27, 1909, it was given no number or price.

The third section of this first class is composed of the House of Lords Papers, which are issued in bound annual volumes, very similar in many ways to those of the Commons.

A curious complication has arisen from some facts concerning the Index, however.

Until the year 1900 the Papers contained the Command Papers, Minutes of Proceedings, Reports of Committees (including Joint Committees of both Houses), Public Bills and Miscellaneous Papers. After 1900, however, Command Papers, which are presented to both Houses and thus appear in the

Commons Papers, were excluded from those of the House of Lords. This is the explanation of the great deerease in the number of volumes issued annually after 1900.

The complieation already mentioned lies in the fact that although the Command Papers were omitted from the volumes, yet until 1920 referenees to them were included in the Index. Thus the greatest part of the Index 1900–1920 consists of references whieh cannot be turned up, and which, in fact, have no business to be there at all.

This rather curious system was fortunately stopped in 1920, and subsequent indexes are mueh smaller but mueh easier to use.

We now eome to what is probably the best known class of all, familiarly known even to-day as *Hansard.* The Parliamentary Debates, to use the correet title, are still in some degree a history of Parliament. The earliest volumes which really belong to this series are called *The Parliamentary History*, and should preeede on the shelves the actual Parliamentary Debates whieh began in 1803. Five series of the Debates have been published :

1st	series—	1803–1820 in	41 vols.
2nd	,, —	1820–1830 in	25 ,,
3rd	,, —	1830–1891 in	350 ,,
4th	,, —	1892–1908 in	77 ,,
5th	,, —	1909–	(current)

The Debates are well indexed in each volume, and a general index is issued for eaeh year. The 5th series differs from the earlier ones in that it splits into two, one set of volumes for the Commons and the other for the Lords.

The connection of the two Hansards, father and son, with the Debates is, of course, well known, but it is probable that the date, 1892, when the connection ceased, is not so well known. There is thus no reason why the name should be used as it is, except that it is a compliment well merited.

The third and fourth classes of Official Publications on our list are the Papers dealing with Proceedings of Parliament and the permanent bound volumes of the same.

With the "Blue Papers" sent to Members of Parliament each morning, with the "White Papers" issued to them in the House as the agenda for the day, with the Order Book, which constitutes the agenda for the rest of the session, with the Weekly List of Public Bills, Statutory Rules and Orders, and the Supply Lists which go to make up these Proceedings, we need not concern ourselves.

It may be useful, however, to note the method of compilation of the annual bound volumes. These are not arranged in the same way as they are issued to members, but are split into various series in which they may be arranged from the commencement of each session. These series number nine in all, and are made up as follows :

1. Votes and Proceedings.
2. Supplement to Votes.
3. Orders of the Day and Notices of Motion.
4. Public Bills.
5. Public Petitions.
6. Private Business.
7. Amendments to Private Bills.
8. Reports of Standing Committees.
9. Divisions in the House.

Perhaps the most important class of all these Official Publications, from the library point of view, is that represented by the Journals of Parliament. These, commencing with the year 1547, form one of the most valuable historical collections a University Library can possess.

There are two runs of the Journal, one for the House of Commons and one for the House of Lords. The annual indexes are of no value after a period of ten years has elapsed, because a most detailed ten-yearly index is issued, which quite supersedes them.

These Journals, which are compiled upon much the same plan for both Houses, are less difficult to find one's way through than other official publications, and many libraries must now be finding that the main difficulty they present is the ever-pressing one of storage.

From the library standpoint the Statutory Rules and Orders, which constitute class six on our list, are of comparatively little importance. They have been issued each year since 1904 in one or more volumes, and all the Rules and Orders in force in 1904 have been codified and issued in a series of volumes alphabetically arranged. One difficulty librarians have in arranging Rules and Orders is that there is a sub-series, which from its title is not readily recognizable. The Defence of the Realm Act during the Great War brought about a number of Rules and Orders which could not be included in the ordinary Statutory Rules and Orders. These were thus issued separately each year with the title *Manuals in Emergency Legislation*. On the shelves in the library they should be filed after the ordinary Rules for each year, unless there is a special War Collection

in the library, when they may be advantageously included in it. In this case, however, it is desirable that dummies should be placed on the shelves in the places where the *Manuals* would normally be found.

There is an Appendix to the Statutory Rules and Orders, containing Rules which have not been made by virtue of an Act of Parliament.

Class seven, Stationery Office Publications, does not consist, as seems often to be thought, of Parliamentary Publications. The Publications are not presented to Parliament, but are issued under the authority of the various Government Departments. More confusion has been caused in libraries by these Stationery Office Publications, I imagine, than by any other single set of publications. Before the War of 1914-18, it was no labour of love to most librarians to arrange these publications in any reasonable order, and it was a task, which it is to be feared many omitted to carry out, to catalogue them satisfactorily.

The greatest source of the further trouble, wherein confusion is worse confounded, is the fact that during the War a number of Parliamentary Publications ceased, for purposes of economy, to be "Parliamentary" and became Stationery Office Publications. If that were the end of the matter there would not be justification for very much grumbling on the part of library staffs, but the fact that a number of the papers which had been transferred were changed back again after the War and once more became Parliamentary Publications is, to put it plainly, exceedingly annoying to the librarian. The next step in this intricate affair brings us to the decision

in 1923 to curtail members' privileges by the transference of papers to the Stationery Office.

It has thus become a real labour to trace an annual publication which falls into this group. An assistant finds the one wanted in the Parliamentary Publications, up to a certain year, when it apparently disappears. He may, if he is a good searcher, find the continuation after a while among the Stationery Office Publications, but only a very capable assistant will follow it back again to the Parliamentary Publications and from there again back to the Stationery Office series.

The problem of cataloguing is to all appearances a serious one, but is not, of course, insuperable. It becomes necessary to check very carefully each publication, and after giving the dates of the run, to add a footnote to the entry, briefly stating the changes. The checking is the important feature in reality, and not the actual cataloguing, for if the checking is thoroughly and completely done the mere chronicling in catalogue entry form is child's play.

The cataloguer should not fail to make use of the Report and Appendices of the Select Committee on Publications, 1923, for Appendix 1 gives a list of Stationery Office Publications which were formerly Parliamentary Publications.

Prior to 1922 the Stationery Office issued every quarter, (1) a Quarterly List of Official Publications, which contained the Stationery Office Publications, and (2) a Quarterly List of Parliamentary Publications. At the end of each year these were drawn together into two volumes, one of each set, the Parliamentary set having an index appended to it. In 1922 the method was changed, and since then the

Stationery Office has published a Consolidated List of Parliamentary and Stationery Office Publications in a single volume, with an index. In addition to this List, the Stationery Office has published since 1920 a Monthly Circular, which contains, in addition to complete lists of new publications, reviews of the most important ones.

It was not until the session of 1836 that Parliamentary Papers were sold to the general public, and, prior to 1801, Reports, Estimates, and similar material must be sought for in the Journals of Parliament. Four volumes, which should be in every large library, were issued in 1773. These volumes contain a selection of the most valuable Reports of Committees which had *not* been printed in the Journals. In addition to these four, in 1803 eleven further volumes of Reports appeared. Hansard prepared an Index to these volumes and added to it a list of the Reports which *had* appeared in the Journals from 1696 to 1800.

In 1825 a Committee recommended that a selection of the Parliamentary Papers should be made and published, but much argument followed, and it was not until May, 1837, that publicity was fully established and the Parliamentary Papers became available to all.

Earlier, however, John Marshall had issued a *Digest of Statistics*, which he had abstracted from over six hundred Journals, Parliamentary Papers, etc. This contained data from the year 1799. It was followed and supplemented by a series of *Statistical Tables* covering the period 1820 to 1852. These later tables, generally called *Porter's Tables* were the joint work of G. R. Porter and A. W. Fonblanque.

It is hardly necessary to state that both Marshall's *Digest* and Porter's *Tables* should be shelved with the set of Parliamentary Papers in a library.

The foregoing notes have been made as brief and as clear as possible, and it is thought that they provide most of the information essential to those who are called upon to deal with these publications. For those who require more detailed information I strongly recommend the perusal of H. B. Lees-Smith's *Guide to Parliamentary and Official Papers*, 1924. This pamphlet, although it omits, I think, a few of the points mentioned above, is nevertheless a masterly piece of work and is of the utmost value. No library of any importance should be without a copy.

The Record Publications are much easier to arrange and deal with, on the whole, than the Parliamentary and official papers noticed above. They consist of six series :

A. Folio series, issued by the Record Commissioners and continuations thereof. These are usually demy folio (about 17½ in. by 11 in.).
B. Octavo series (about 10¼ in. by 6½ in.).
C. Calendars of State Papers, and other volumes uniform with them, issued by the State Paper Office, the Public Record Office, and the General Register House. Imperial 8° (about 10½ in. by 7¼ in.).
D. Lists and Indexes. 4° (about 13½ in. by 8½ in.).
E. Chronicles and Memorials (the well-known "Rolls Series") and volumes uniform with them. Royal 8° (about 10¼ in. by 6½ in.).
F. Miscellaneous volumes, including facsimiles.

H.M. Stationery Office periodically revises and reissues a *List of Record Publications*, and this can easily be made use of as a check-list. A copy should always be filed near the publications themselves. Only two points call for special notice. The first being that, invaluable as the Stationery Office *List* is, a few publications exist which were issued by the Record Commissioners and which do not appear in the *List*. Thus a library which has on its shelves all the publications named in the *List* may not necessarily possess *all* the Record Publications.

The second point is that new editions of volumes 5 and 6 of the Acts of the Parliaments of Scotland were issued in 1875, volume 6 being in two parts. Libraries possessing a run of these Acts should make sure that they have these second editions, which contain a vast amount of matter excluded from the first editions. Finally, perhaps it should be added that the Revised Edition, 1424-1707 does not appear in the *List of Record Publications* (which is List Q), but must be sought for in List T—Statutes.

Since 1886 the Public General Acts of Parliament, as distinct from the Local and Private Acts, have been published separately by the Stationery Office. At the end of each year they are also issued in bound volumes with indexes. The Local and Private Acts are also provided with annual indexes. These indexes are fairly generally known, but the annual compilation bearing the title Chronological Table and Index to the Statutes, issued in two volumes, does not appear to be so familiar to most people. As indicated by its title, this Table gives in the first volume in chronological order all the Statutes passed since A.D. 1285, and also refers to subsequent Acts

whose effect has been to repeal or amend earlier ones. The second volume is in effect a subject index to the Statute Book.

The series known as Statutes Revised should be in every University Library. This is a complete collection from earliest times of all statutes still in force. It has yet to be brought right up to date.

For information regarding other official publications, particularly those dealing with such subjects as Economics and Education, reference should be made to the valuable article by Mr. Angus Fletcher in *The Library Journal*, May 1st, 1927.

XXIII

THESES (DISSERTATIONS)

Most of the larger university libraries exchange their publications with one another. In this way an enormous number of theses, particularly from the continent of Europe and from America, are received by the larger university libraries of this country every year.

Apart from the natural interest each university has in the work carried out in other universities, many of these dissertations are of the nature of valuable contributions to literature in all its branches. It is, therefore, desirable, that on receipt of a batch of dissertations from another university any librarian should be in a position to accession, catalogue, and classify (and the two last acts are by far the most important) the works received. Unfortunately many libraries have regarded this as an ideal impossible of realization and it is to be feared that in some universities many of the theses received are destroyed. In others they are tied up in batches and dumped (no other word so adequately describes the actual fact) in a store room, in the hope that some future day may see a large staff in the library capable of dealing with them. Other libraries roughly classify them by subject and leave them, while yet others arrange them by university in alphabetical or some

other order. In each case they are more or less useless and are taking up considerable space, yet the librarians are wise in not destroying them. Curiously enough the space occupied by these huge batches kept together always seems far greater than if the theses are classified and thus spread over the different parts of the library.

Although in the Library of the University of St. Andrews many dissertations from other universities had already been catalogued, the present writer since undertaking the complete reorganization and re-cataloguing of the Library has been faced with the problem, among many others almost equally difficult of solution, of dealing with more than 20,000 theses from different universities which had been received over a long period but which the library staff had found it impracticable even to accession. Many other university libraries throughout the world, but, chiefly owing to the prevalency of smaller staffs, more particularly those of Britain, are probably in similar positions.

In the first place it has been found impossible, without seriously hampering other work, to deal with these batches of theses which we are constantly receiving from abroad, immediately on receipt. As a matter of fact, as will shortly be apparent, a considerable period is allowed to elapse after theses are received before any serious attempt is made to deal with them. An exception is made, of course, in the case of theses *known* to be likely to be required at once.

The scheme adopted is based upon the theory,—which, in the nature of things and for reasons of sheer common sense, must come to be much more

generally adopted in libraries,—that there is no useful object to be gained by many libraries doing the same cataloguing and classifying as each other over and over again. We, therefore, use two great bibliographical aids, neither of which, curiously enough, is as commonly known and used as one might expect, in this country. The two "aids" are (1) the Library of Congress published lists of American Dissertations, and (2) the slips printed by the Prussian State Library at Berlin for German theses.

These are the only two "aids" of which we actually make very much use, but there are several others which every university or other library which receives many dissertations should possess. The following list may be of practical service. One of the great advantages of using these aids lies in the fact that it is usually quite impossible to spare the time to look up details of the authors of the theses, and that these aids provide the information.

In addition to the two already noticed there are:

1. *Titles of theses accepted for the degree of doctor.* (In: *Yearbook of the Universities of the Empire*, 1927→.) London, Bell, 1927→.
2. California University. Graduate Division. *Record of theses submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of California*, 1885–1926. Berkeley, University of California, 1926.
3. Merrill (Roy M.). *American doctoral dissertations in the Romance field.* 1876–1926. New York, Columbia University Press, 1927.

4. Harvard University.
Doctors of Philosophy and Doctors of Science who have received their degree in course from Harvard University, 1873–1926, *with the titles of their theses*. Cambridge, Harvard University, 1926.

5. Johns Hopkins University Library.
List of dissertations submitted in conformity with the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Doctor of Engineering and Doctor of Science in Hygiene in the Johns Hopkins University, 1876–1926. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins Press, 1926.

6. Columbia University.
Bulletin of Information. List of theses submitted by candidates for the degree of doctor of philosophy in Columbia University, 1872–1910. New York, [1912 ?].

7. *Catalogue des thèses et écrits académiques.* (Ministère de l'Instr. Publ.), Paris, Leroux. T.1→, 1885→.

8. Maire (Albert).
Répertoire alphabétique des thèses de Doctorat ès Lettres des Universités Françaises, 1810–1900. Paris, 1903.

9. *Catalogue des dissertations et écrits académiques provenant des échanges avec des universités étrangères et reçus par la Bibliothèque Nationale*, 1883→. Paris, 1884→.

10. Mourier (A.) and Deltour (F.).
Notice sur le doctorat ès lettres suivie du catalogue et de l'analyse des thèses françaises et latines admises par les facultés des lettres depuis 1810. 4e. éd. Paris [1880].

11. Mourier (A.) and Deltour (F.).
Catalogue et analyse des thèses latines et françaises admises par les facultés des lettres. Paris, 1882–1902.

12. Maire (A.).
Catalogue des thèses de sciences soutenues en France de 1810 *à* 1890 *inclusivement.* (Bibl. des thèses, 3.)

13. *Nomenclature des thèses de sciences mathématiques soutenues en France dans le courant du* 19*e. siècle devant les facultés des sciences de Paris et des départements.* Paris, 1903.

14. Dorveaux (P.) and Planchon (G.).
Catalogue des thèses soutenues devant l'Ecole de Pharmacie de Paris, 1815–1889. (Bibl. des thèses, 1.) Paris, 1891.

15. Dorveaux (P.) and Planchon (G.).
Catalogue des thèses de pharmacie soutenues en province, 1803–1894. (Bibl. des thèses, 2.) Paris, 1894.

16. *Catalogue d'une collection de thèses publ. dans les Pays-Bas données à la Bibliothèque Nationale,* 1–2. Paris, 1884.

17. *Catalogus van Academische Geschriften in Nederland en Nederlandsch Indië Verschenen.* Jaarg. 1→, 1924→.
Uitg. van de Nederlandsche Vereeniging van Bibliothecarissen en Bibliothek-amtenaren. Utrecht, 1925→.

18. Muller (F.).
Catalogus plus quam 10,000 *dissertationum juridicarum.* Amstelodami, 1879.

19. Wijndelts (J. W.).
Catalogus van academische proefschriften verdedigd aan de Nederlandsche universiteiten gedurende de jaren, 1815–1900. Vols. 1 and 5. [No more publ.]. Groningen, 1901–1903.

20. Dée (M. A.).
Academische proefschriften verdedigt te Leiden, Utrecht, Groningen en Amsterdam in de jaren 1877–1899. Leiden, 1900.

21. *Thèses de droit soutenues aux universités des Pays-Bas*, 1700–1898. Leyde, 1898.

22. Kjöbenhavns Universitet.
Akademiscke Skrifter og Dissertationer. Kjöbenhavn, 1897.

23. Lidén (J. H.).
Catalogus disputationum in academiis et gymnasiis Sueciae. 1–5. Upsaliae, 1778–1780.

24. Marklin (M.).
Ad Catalogum disputationum in academiis et gymnasiis Sueciae Lidenianum Supplementa. Upsaliae, 1820.

25. Marklin (M.).
Catalogus disputationum in academiis Scandinaviae et Finlandiae Lidenianus continuatus. 1–3. Upsaliae, 1820.

26. Marklin (M.).
Catalogus disputationum . . . continuatus. 1–3. Upsaliae, 1856.

27. Wahlberg (C. G.).
Förteckning öfver offentligen försvarade akademiska afhandlingar vid Kongl. universiteten i Upsala och Lund (1852–1877), *Kongl. Carolinska medico-*

kirurgiska institutet i Stockholm (1842–1877), *och Kejserliga Alexanders-universitetet i Helsingfors* (1853–1877), *jemte de under samma tid vid dessa högskoler utgifna program.* Upsala, 1877.

28. Josephson (A. G. S.).
Avhandlingar ock program utgivna vid svenska ock finska akademier ock skolor under åren 1855–1890. *Bibliografi.* Upsala, 1911.

29. Hjelt (O. E. A.).
Dissertationes academicae et programmata universitatis litterarum Fennorum, Helsingforsiae annis 1828–1908 *edita.* Helsingfors, 1909.

30. *Jahresverzeichnis der schweizerischen Hochschulschriften. Catalogue des écrits académiques suisses,* 1897→. Basel, Univ.-Bibl., 1898→.

31. Weber (H.) and Werner (J.).
Verzeichnis zürcherischer Universitätsschriften, 1833–1897. Zürich, 1904.

32. *Bibliographischer Monatsbericht über neu erschienene Schul—Universitäts—und Hochschulschriften.* Jahrg. 1→. Leipzig, 1889→.

33. Walther (Karl).
Bibliographie der an den deutschen technischen Hochschulen erschienenen Doktor-Ingenieur-Dissertationen, 1900–1910. Berlin, 1914.

34. *Verzeichnis der Berliner Universitätsschriften,* 1810–1885. Berlin, 1899.

35. Milkau (F.).
Verzeichnis der Bonner Universitätsschriften, 1818–1885. Bonn, 1897.

36. Pretzsch (Karl).
Verzeichnis der Breslauer Universitätsschriften, 1811–1885. Breslau, 1905.

37. *Verzeichnis der an der Kaiser—Wilhelms—Universität Strassburg*, 1872–1884. Strassburg, 1890.
38. Foek (G.).
Catalogus dissertationum philologicarum classicarum. 2. Aufl. Leipzig, 1910.
39. Schonack (W.).
Ein Jahrhundert Berliner philologischer Dissertationen, 1810–1910. Wolfenbüttel, 1914.
40. Varhagen (H.).
Systematisches Verzeichnis der Programmabhandlungen, Dissertationen und Habilitationsschriften a. d. Geb. der romanischen und englischen Philologie. 2. Aufl. Besorgt von J. Martin. Leipzig, 1893.
41. *Verzeichnis der seit* 1850 *an den Deutschen Universitäten erschienenen Doktordissertationen und Habilitationsschriften aus der reinen und angewandten Mathematik.* Münehen, 1893.
42. Fiebig (C. M. O.).
Corpus dissertationum theologicarum. Lipsiae, 1847.
43. Vogel (E. F.).
Lexicon literaturae academico-juridicae. 1–2. Lipsiae, 1836–1838.
44. Candioti (M. R.).
Bibliografía doctoral de la Universidad de Buenos Aires y Catálogo cronologico de las tesis en su primer centenario, 1821–1920. Buenos Aires, 1920.
45. La Plata. Universidad Naeional. Biblioteea. *Catálogo de la colección de tesis jurídicas.* Buenos Aires, 1914.
46. Buenos Aires. Universidad Naeional. Facultad de cieneias médicas. Biblioteea. *Catalogo de la colección de tesis*, 1827–1917. Buenos Aires, 1918.

In practice, a batch of dissertations received from an American University, for example, is looked over carefully on receipt, acknowledged, and stamped. A note of gift is then made in the daily records. Any thesis of particular importance at the time of receipt or bearing directly upon the teaching in the University is then catalogued and classified in exactly the same manner as any other new book, with the addition of an entry in the Catalogue of Theses, under the name of the university. The other theses are then stored until the arrival of the Library of Congress list of dissertations for that year. They are, of course, available to readers, on request. On receipt of this publication, or as soon afterwards as possible, all parcels of theses for that year are checked over with the list, any necessary alterations or additions are made (and the number of these is negligible), a pencil mark is placed against all corresponding entries in the list, which is then handed to a typist, who has standing instructions as to the number of cards and slips to be typed out for such entries.

The cards and slips, if correct, are then filed in the ordinary way.

Practically the same procedure is adopted for German dissertations. There is one difference, however, which is that while the American entries bear the Library of Congress class-marks and are thus ready classified for us, it is necessary to add class-marks to the German entries.

The foregoing remarks give no indication of the actual saving of time effected by this method. Some slight idea of it may be gained, however, by mentioning that in both the American and German lists full Christian names are given and also in many cases

the dates of birth. In many instances it would be quite impossible for us to discover these facts in any other way.

There is, of course, no reason why the same method should not be employed in dealing with the dissertations of universities in other countries.

One point may be urged by some librarians against such methods, namely, a certain slight lack of uniformity in entries. This, however, in my opinion, is a matter of little moment where the scholars for whom the cataloguing is primarily done are concerned, and in our case, at any rate, has not been productive of any inconvenience whatsoever.

[*Reference:* See Section devoted to Exchanges.]

XXIV

RECORDING PORTRAITS

It is the practice to record, in a few libraries at least, when cataloguing early works, any portraits occurring in those works. No one can doubt that this is a commendable practice which might with advantage enjoy more general observation, and it is a matter for considerable regret that so many libraries, even large and important ones, make no effort whatever to help this useful work forward.

On the other hand, a few painstaking and intelligent librarians have extended the practice so as to include most of their books.

It is certain that libraries exist primarily as aids to scholars, young and old, experienced and inexperienced.

Everyone connected with libraries knows, or, at any rate, should know the value and interest of portraits of all historical characters, and here the term historical, of course, is used in the broadest sense.

When one realizes this and takes into consideration the vast portrait galleries that libraries really form it is little less than astonishing that so little has been done in the way of providing indexes to the portraits in the books in libraries.

Probably almost everyone endeavours to draw a

mental picture of the person whose life or work he is studying, and it is an unquestionable gain to be able to substitute for an imaginary portrait the true features and figure of a person.

In the exceptional case of Shakespeare, and one should include Bacon, portraits have played an extraordinary part in literature. It is clear, however, that the value attaching to portraits in books is not governed by any rule. The portraits may be of merely passing interest or they may be of exceptional value in deciding controversial points. They may be in a class between those two extremes, or they may be in the "outside" class whose interest lies not in the individual portrayed but in the portrayer.

One must admit that it is rather improbable that the average librarian will be in a position to decide what value, if any, a portrait possesses, as a general rule. No doubt he will be capable, or should be, of exercising a certain amount of discrimination, but in the writer's opinion the less discriminating he is in this particular work the more value that work is likely to possess.

Small town libraries and county libraries need not add to the labours of their staffs by attempting such work as this. Little would be gained in most cases, and their staffs are usually very small. There can be no doubt, however, that university libraries and large and important libraries of all kinds should, whenever possible, undertake it.

The work is interesting and is not by any means arduous. It can be tackled in odd moments, or can be used as a recreative change for an overtired counter staff.

Simple but clear rules somewhat on the lines of

those given below might be followed. Libraries in a position to do so would be performing a useful service by publishing their results.

Suggested Rules.

(*a*) *Main Entry.*—Name of individual portrayed. Date (of portrait) when possible. Photograph; engraving; painting; imaginary portrait, etc. Names of painter, engraver, photographer, etc. Note of where found.

(*b*) *Index entries.*—Short entries only, under names of painters, engravers, etc., in index form.

XXV

THE LIBRARY "MUSEUM AND ART GALLERY"

EVERY university library should have a "museum." Not, of course, a natural history or general museum, but one for bibliographical purposes. In it should be collected photographs or other reproductions of title-pages (odd title-pages themselves should be preserved therein); reproductions of all local printers' ornaments and types; book plates [1]; photographs and other plates; rubbings and photographs of bindings (particularly those of local interest); and all the notes and jottings of bibliographical interest made by the library staff in the library.

The most suitable place for housing the "museum" collection is no doubt the Librarian's room, but this is not always large enough for the purpose, and the Early Printed Books room may serve.

Some of the items suggested for inclusion in it may occasionally be better placed in the local collection, if one exists. Even so the "museum" should be maintained, for it will be found of great and increasing value and use. Assistants should be encouraged not only to make use of it, but to contribute to it themselves as frequently as possible.

It is hardly necessary to say that an index should be kept of all "museum" objects. Such an index will soon be found to be a valuable reference work.

[1] These should not be removed from books, of course.

XXVI

ACCESSION RECORD WORK

In most of the text-books of library practice a considerable amount of stress is laid upon the necessity of maintaining stock-books and accessions registers. No doubt this idea is a very excellent one, but to many librarians nowadays it seems a little laboured, and if all the suggested rulings for these two records—the difference between which is a constant source of trouble to young assistants—are really conscientiously filled in regularly, the work involved is far too heavy. Especially is this so if one takes as the primary consideration, where library records are concerned, the immediate and ultimate usefulness of the records. As a matter of actual fact there is one record in every library which is of paramount importance, and unless that record is as complete as possible and approaches as nearly as possible to perfection it seems very doubtful if the staff of any library can spare the time for such perfect methods of keeping such records as stock books and accessions registers. The record I refer to is, of course, the *catalogue* of the library. In a library where the catalogue is already approaching the ideals which every librarian cherishes, then, and then only, is it justifiable to spend much time on information useful for purely statistical purposes.

This statement may seem to imply that I have not sufficient respect for statistical records. That is

not so, however. It merely means that I have more respect for the *contents* of a library when I can gain useful information from the catalogue, than I have for a library of the contents of which I am only sure that they are made up of 300,000 volumes, 60,000 pamphlets, 29 broadsides, 560 maps, and so on. It is useful, indeed it is necessary, that such records should be kept, but at any rate until some universal system of "counting" and accessioning is adopted the records from one point of view, i.e. for purposes of comparison, are almost ludicrous. Everyone knows that what one librarian calls a pamphlet another calls a volume, and often the same publication is described in three different ways in the records of as many different libraries. I do not wish unduly to stress the wastefulness of time, from this point of view, of the methods so commonly advocated in our text-books, but one might cite the famous library of the University of Durham as an example of a library which as far as accessions records go can show nothing that will bear comparison with thousands of libraries, and its stock-book shows only about 40,000 volumes as the library stock. Yet the library, like many others of its kind, is exceedingly valuable and useful, because the contents are what they should be and its catalogue is a good one. When the subject catalogues are completed the library will be able to smile quietly at many others whose stock-books show much more laboured entries and many thousands more volumes.

In the older libraries the great value of stock records of any kind lies in the historical interest. It is pleasing to be able to trace the growth of a library, and one of the best ways is certainly by means

of such records. Unfortunately, however, most of us who are in charge of what may be called ancient libraries do not get much benefit from accessions records, from this point of view, for the simple reason that either they are comparatively recent institutions in the library or else the details given in the older and more interesting records are so casually recorded as to be only useful in a very limited degree. Again, while accessions are perhaps invariably recorded, losses from any cause whatever are *not* carefully shown. Thus the actual contents of a library at, say, the beginning of the 17th century is not entirely to be deduced from its stock-books and accessions records. More valuable by far—yet even here perfection is a long way to seek—are the early and later *catalogues* of the library when they exist, as they usually do. By a careful comparison of the catalogue of a library in 1600 with one of the same library in 1700 one can get a much better idea of the library and, to a certain extent, of the educational work of the university. Generally speaking, the real importance of such compilations as accessions catalogues lies in (*a*) their historical interest, and (*b*) their value for insurance purposes, and in this latter case an up-to-date catalogue of a library with its proper statistical appendix serves the purposes better.

The utilization of order slips, after books have been supplied, as accessions slips is, in my opinion, strongly to be advocated as a time saver. If slips of the same size are used to record volumes of periodicals sent to the binder, these may also be incorporated with the accessions slips when the volumes are returned by the binder, and a running number added

to book and slip. If this is done, however, another record of books bound must be maintained for statistical purposes.

When a book is lost or disposed of, the corresponding accessions slip should *not* be removed from the file, but a note in red ink should be added explaining what has happened to the book. A copy of the slip should then be made and filed in the " lost-books " file or other appropriate file. In this file a fresh running number should be added to the slip, in order that the number of books lost may be seen at a glance.

XXVII

DONATIONS AND BEQUESTS

VERY exact and complete records of all large donations or bequests to a library should be kept. After the lapse of years, if it is ever desired to compile a history of the library these records are of inestimable importance and value.

Often enough, unfortunately, in the older libraries, it will be found that only the barest records, if any at all, exist of early gifts. The old press-mark system was invariably employed, however, in past centuries, and almost always the whole, or almost the whole, gift was shelved together. Thus it is not a very difficult, though it may prove a tedious business, partially to reconstruct, even to-day, the growth of some of our oldest libraries, when actual records fail us.

Undoubtedly it is worth while to do so and to produce, at this late date, donation and bequest records for the past. By doing so, often enough, one builds up afresh, on paper at least, the library of some famous or important person of centuries ago, who left his collections to the university. Personally, in spite of classification schemes, I am inclined to the view that these old collections should be reconstructed as far as possible on the shelves as well as on paper, when the donor was a really outstanding individual.

Thus, at St Andrews, for example, in the course of reorganizing, I have been able to build up a collection, now known as the " Regent Moray Collection," which must comprise, at any rate, the greater part of the library which belonged to that ill-fated brother of Mary Queen of Scots.

I have also been fortunate, guided partially by the original and long disused press-marks, partially by the bindings of the books, and partially by inscriptions, etc., in gathering at least small collections which formerly formed parts of the libraries of other royal or historically important persons. These collections are naturally of importance to biographers, historians, and bibliographers ; indeed, their importance as they stand, in my opinion, far outweighs the advantages that might be gained by classifying these books in the ordinary way. At the same time entries for *all* books, without exception, should appear in the subject catalogues, as well as the author catalogues.

XXVIII

STAMPING BOOKS

A TIME consuming and fatiguing duty is that of impressing the library's stamp one or more times upon incoming books, periodicals, etc. This is, however, an essential part of the programme in every library, large or small. For small or financially poor (and how many of our *richest* libraries are that !) there seems no alternative, but for very large libraries, even where expenditure is already a cause for concern, time and labour-saving devices are worthy of even more consideration. It is possible, in libraries where electricity is installed, to do the stamping work by machinery. Although this is the case, I do not know of any library in this country where an electric-motor stamp has been adopted.

In 1914 or thereabouts Mr. Herman Alweis, head carpenter at the St. Louis Public Library, invented a machine for stamping books. The device is adjusted to a position just above the periodical or book to be stamped and a button is pressed. This action makes an electric connection which starts a motor, which in turn drives the stamp against the paper surface, prints an impression and releases the stamp ready for the next impression. The whole device is worked by connecting the machine with the nearest electric connection. I have not seen it used,

but it is said that the operation is as quickly accomplished as with an ordinary hand stamp and, as one would imagine, the result is a uniform impression. All librarians have probably been reduced to a state of wrath at the sight of some of the results of hand stamping by incompetent or careless assistants, and the uniformity obtained by this machine, to say nothing of the saving of muscular effort, makes it worth consideration in any large library where the stamping of incoming periodicals, etc., is a really serious matter.

XXIX

BOOKPLATES

A METHOD OF ECONOMISING ON TIME AND LABOUR

It is somewhat strange that, so far as I am aware, at least, hardly any libraries have made use of a great time and labour-saving method of investing their books with bookplates.

Almost all large libraries, and certainly practically all university and college libraries, are in the habit of using distinctive bookplates. In many libraries, again particularly those belonging to universities or colleges, several different bookplates are in use.

The usual method, of course, in this detail of administration is to have a large number of bookplates printed from a block. These are kept in stock, and one is pasted (usually) on the end-paper inside the front cover of each new book, and each book bound for the library.

As far as new books received in a bound condition are concerned, I do not think any other method *can* be adopted, providing that it is desirable that the books shall bear the library's bookplate, and an assistant must constantly spend a considerable amount of time on this not very useful labour. Unlike many duties in a library, the only gain an assistant is likely

to derive from this particularly dull work is an added accuracy of eye and a more careful and deft hand.

Books bound for the library, and in large libraries many thousands of volumes, particularly, of course, of periodical literature, are bound annually, present an alternative. This alternative has several advantages. In the first place the library staff is freed from this admittedly dull labour, and a considerable amount of time is saved. Secondly, the danger of smudged end-papers (in practice, where, as usually is the case, juniors are employed to do the pasting) is completely obviated, and a much cleaner and neater looking result is obtained.

The method advocated is to have a stock of end-papers made with the bookplate device printed on them. These end-papers are, of course, kept by the library bookbinder. In actual practice the binder will usually procure the end-papers, printed, himself, if the block is loaned to him. The expense involved is about the same as for ordinary bookplates. Any library books sent to be bound or re-bound are returned to the library with the " bookplate end-paper " already in, and as far as the library staff is concerned their work is done for them.

A similar method was brought into use in the Forbes Library at Northampton, Mass., about 1914, but I am not aware of any other library where the idea has been adopted. It has points and value which seem to justify more universal adoption.

As an alternative, the binder may be supplied with a quantity of bookplates, one of which he is instructed to paste into each book bound for the library. The slight extra charge for this work is amply repaid by the neat appearance of the work

done and by the fact that, such work in the library being greatly reduced, assistants are freer to carry out other duties.

From personal experience I can testify to the advantages of this method, and I strongly recommend it to librarians who so far have not made use of it.

XXX

TO REMOVE BOOK LABELS

A FORMER janitor of Radcliffe College Library, U.S.A., discovered the following very satisfactory way of removing old labels and such-like matter from library books. To the label should be applied a paste made of powdered asbestos and water. After leaving for a short time, the paste should be removed and replaced in the jar or dish. The label then will come away from the book without the least difficulty and without harming the book in any way. Any residue of paste left at the edges may be removed by a slight application of water and without trouble. The asbestos paste can be used over and over again.

This is a great improvement upon the old-fashioned method of water and a penknife, which, even in the most careful and experienced hands, are frequently productive of considerable damage to books, particularly to those bound in soft leathers. I have seen bindings badly injured, not only by inexperienced juniors, but by assistants of long experience, through scratching off labels with penknives. It cannot be too strongly urged that the greatest care and patience should be used in this somewhat uninteresting task, particularly, of course, where old or valuable bindings are concerned.

XXXI

BOOK SUPPORTS

ALL librarians are familiar with the trouble arising from the jamming of books on the edge of a book support. To overcome this, Mr. Thomas S. Dabagh, Organizing Librarian of the Bohemian Club Library, San Francisco, hit upon the idea of bending over about three-quarters of an inch of the metal support, at right-angles. By so doing the support is at once obvious and, moreover, it is wellnigh impossible to jam a book on it. Further, the piece bent over forms a kind of handle whereby one can more easily move the support. The bend can be made by placing a stout piece of wood, about three-quarters of an inch shorter than the support, against it and hammering the top of the support down on to the wood. No expense is involved in making this improvement, which is worthy of more general adoption for the sake of the books. It is hardly necessary to add that the reference is to the ordinary L-shaped support used on wooden shelves. For steel shelving excellent wire supports are available. Even after the bend recommended above for wooden shelf book supports has been made, this pattern leaves much to be desired, as all librarians know. It is very apt to get knocked over for one thing, and it is not satisfactory for large or heavy books.

There are two other types of support, each of which is in many ways preferable. The first is a grip support, working either on a spring or an adjustable screw principle.

It really consists of two L-shaped supports, one slightly smaller than and capable of sliding in the other. Fitted to the base of the larger is a spring on which the extreme end of the smaller L rests. The spring enables the support to be used on a shelf at any reasonable distance below another shelf, the spring pushing the top part of the support against the upper shelf, and so making the support grip firmly. In place of the spring it is possible to use a short arrangement with holes at every $\frac{1}{4}$ inch into which screws are placed. This necessitates regulation distances between shelves, and in practice is not by any means as satisfactory as the spring arrangement one imagines.

The second type of support is based upon the theory of advantage accruing from the adoption of the same wire supports for wooden shelves as are used for steel ones in a library where both kinds of shelving exist. This support is, of course, shaped like a loop.

In order to adapt this support to wooden shelves it is necessary to have tiny brass grooves fitted on the under side and at the front and back edges of each shelf. These grooves occupy no more than $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch, and so little space, if any, is lost. The expense in a large library is considerable, but the practical utility is unquestionable, and the appearance of a library depends a great deal upon having tidy shelves. In my opinion for a constantly used

open-access library this is the only satisfactory method. The ordinary L support gets left like a desert island on the shelf when readers have been helping themselves to books ; books fall against it and knock it over, and readers themselves are prone to completely ignore them. On the other hand, the loop support will hold safely the heaviest book, for its strength is applied at the top of the book, just where it is most needed. Again, it cannot get knocked over or off the shelf. Lastly, the same support can be used either in the steel stacks or in the reading rooms with wooden shelving.

It is strongly recommended that, whenever possible, shelving provided with grooves in which the support will grip, be ordered for all libraries purchasing new wooden shelving. This type of shelving, of course, has to be made to order, but it can be obtained at very reasonable cost.

XXXII

UNIVERSITY LIBRARY BINDERIES

A CERTAIN amount has been written in various text-books and professional journals about the desirability or undesirability of university libraries possessing their own binding establishments. One of the sanest considerations of the facts of the matter came from the pen of the Librarian of Minnesota University, Mr. Frank Keller Walter, and appeared in the *Library Journal* for March 1, 1927.

The great factors are, of course, speed and personal supervision, expense and availability of books being bound.

At Minnesota the Library possesses its private bindery, and it has been found that it not merely pays its way, but is a very valuable adjunct to the Library.

Generally speaking, I believe the experience at Minnesota would be that of many libraries if plants were installed and, in a really large library where a big annual binding bill has normally to be met, I am of the opinion that it would be to the advantage of the library to possess its private bindery. But in using the term advantage I am speaking very generally. I am not at all certain, in this country, even after the initial expenditure has been met, that the wages bill plus materials and running

expenses would not be higher than the ordinary outside service binding bill ; at least if the current trade union rates of wages had to be paid.

The advantages would, however, usually more than balance the extra expense, I think. Such advantages as having the books always on the premises ; being able to " rush " certain bindings ; and the possibility of exercising constant personal supervision in the case of special bindings ; these would usually counterbalance a small extra outlay, in theory. The difficulty in many libraries, however, in spite of such advantages as these, would lie in obtaining an increased grant for paying the workmen's wages (I use the term " workmen " relatively; much of the work could actually be done by girls or boys, of course).

In actual practice I am rather of the opinion that if, as I think is usually the case, little inconvenience is caused by the books leaving the premises, and the work is satisfactorily carried out, the outside binder being capable of dealing with " valuable " books as well as ordinary ones, a librarian will do well to hesitate before before installing a bindery in the library.

At the same time it cannot be denied that there is a great deal to be said in favour of the private bindery, and it is certainly very desirable that there should be more experimentation in this direction.

One or two university libraries in this country have already installed private binderies, and there seems no room for doubting the general advantages which have accrued to the universities concerned. Apparently, however, there is considerable room for doubt as to the financial benefits.

XXXIII

ACCESS TO SHELVES

In public libraries the very wise distinction has been made between juvenile and adult readers, and the general arrangement of a public library is planned with a view to providing adequately for both classes. University libraries are in much the same position. Two moderately well-defined classes have to be catered for: more or less elementary students (not in the elementary school sense, of course, but relatively), and the most advanced students of all, i.e. professors.

Granted that, generally speaking, direct and free access to the shelves is beneficial both to reader and staff, it is nevertheless quite certain that while it may be an advantage to an advanced scholar to have at his hand Bollandus or the volumes of the Historical MSS. Commission, it would be a disadvantage to all concerned to load up the shelves to which the freshmen or bejants have access with such works.

No doubt some librarians are of the opinion that no one should have direct access to the great collections such as Migne, and probably there is something to be said on that side, but personally I see no reason why the teaching staff, or at least those of professorial rank, should not have access to them. In fact it seems to me that not to grant as free access as possible

to the great collections of inscriptions, for example, to professors of Greek and Latin or Archæology is to be setting up a barrier which is distinctly reducing the value of the library, while serving no useful purpose whatever.

On the other hand, such factors as accommodation both for books and for readers necessarily enter into the question, and probably no two libraries can adopt precisely the same attitude in relation to this matter.

If it is at all possible, it is policy to have several reading rooms in a university library, in each of which direct access is possible to different classes of books by different classes of readers.

In the first place it is suggested that the fairly clear cut which has already been made in several university libraries, leaving Theology and Arts on the one side and Science and Medicine on the other, is one which these days of specialization makes desirable. It can be commended also on several other points. It falls in broadly with the faculty divisions, and it provides scope for the concentration of assistants whose bents lie on the one side or the other, to develop their own knowledge with general advantage.

There should be a reading room for each of these divisions, which can be expanded into four if circumstances make the further division desirable: it should be noted, however, that to split Theology from Arts is a dubious advantage. In each of these reading rooms direct access might be granted to copies of all books which are definitely students' books. Prescribed books may take first place, of course, but these need to be strengthened by books

not in any syllabus and which the librarian, generally speaking, will do well to choose in company with the departmental heads. The question of borrowing these books for home reading does not enter into this section.

In addition to these two reading rooms for students, there should be at least one, and preferably two more. A staff (teaching) reading room is almost, if not quite, an essential part of a university library. There is, however, another class to be considered; a class which is yearly increasing in numbers; a class composed of post-graduate students engaged upon research work. This class largely relies upon the same literature as the teaching staff, and it is difficult, if not impossible, to draw a line of any thickness between them as far as their demands upon the library are concerned.

If the university is a small one there will probably be little difficulty in providing one room for the need of both classes, but in a large university, or a university with a large library, there is likely to be more difficulty in adequately providing that both classes may have direct access to the works they require.

All the great collections, catalogues of manuscripts, and as far as is practicable from the library staff's point of view, catalogues of the printed books in the great libraries, should be on shelves available to the teaching staff. Original texts and advanced text-books are also essentials in such a room, but it must be admitted that text-books present more than one problem. The room should be comfortable, but should *not* degenerate into a staff common room. The appearance of the great collections and cata-

logues alone will ensure that it is handsomely decorated.

There is one very important feature of university libraries which as the years go by seems to be becoming more and more lost in our public libraries, with their brisk businesslike enquiry desks and information bureaux. Repose in a library must not be allowed to become one of the lost illusions of the scholar ; it is in little danger of doing so in university libraries, and it is to this feature that I refer. The hurried business man must have his three questions attended to and answered in equally rushed manner in our public and commercial libraries and no one would dream of decrying the value to the community of such service, but the more leisurely reader, common enough in university libraries, is equally worthy of attention, and is perhaps more likely to produce the " fruits of quiet reflection and accurate scholarship " which is the *raison d'être* of university libraries. It is to be hoped that, in these days of urgent demand for the latest publications or acquisitions, and impatience if a book cannot be produced immediately, libraries, whether public or university, will not lose entirely one of their most precious qualities, the atmosphere of repose and studiousness.

I am not in danger of misinterpretation ; no one will imagine that I am advocating sleepiness in libraries ; but an atmosphere of bustle and rush is entirely harmful in a library. Fortunate indeed is the librarian whose assistants are capable of making haste without appearing to rush. Equally fortunate is the one whose open-access system serves the too often forgotten object of enabling the studious person to take down at his will, inspect, and quietly replace

any volume he pleases, without needing to broadcast his aims, views and ideas, but allowing his mind to gently, yet not necessarily slowly, assimilate whatever he finds of service or interest. A university library is *not* a ready reference volume on a large scale.

Access to store rooms should not be denied, but it should be subject to approval in each case by the Librarian or Sub-Librarian. Direct access to the stores even by members of the teaching staff, without previous application, is usually very undesirable. At the same time it is not the Librarian's business to place any obstacles at all in the way of readers, and the merest formal notification of a desire to visit a store room is all that should be necessary. It should not be necessary to keep the person requiring such access waiting at all, usually, but both for statistical purposes and because there are occasions when readers must be excluded from stores the application system should be rigidly enforced.

XXXIV

ADMISSION OF EXTERNAL READERS

The regulations in force in university libraries governing the admission of external readers vary considerably. In some libraries admission is easy to obtain and no fee is charged. In others, while admission is fairly readily granted, fees of varying amounts are charged. As the libraries are at least partly supported by the Government, and hence by the ratepayer, even if he has no real connection with any university, it would seem that there is something to be said for the general adoption of free admission.

On the other hand, university libraries are not entirely Government supported. Further, the prime reason for their existence is to aid in the educative work of the universities, hence members of universities have undoubtedly a prior claim. If allowing free admission to external readers has no detrimental effect upon the use of the library by the university staff and students, it is undoubtedly to be encouraged in all reasonable cases. If, however, such encouragement means that the work of the university is in any way hampered, then it is a duty to impose a subscription for the use of the library; not so much as a means of obtaining funds and hence trading upon advantages the library possesses over other subscription or public libraries, but as a means of ensuring

that those having first claim upon the resources of the library are unhampered. Any such system of subscription, however, should be capable of immediate moderation by the librarian on occasions which justify such action. It should *not* serve to keep out of the library those who, being real students, yet are not in a position to pay a high subscription fee for its use. It should, in fact, be possible, without any delay, to waive the fee altogether. Only when these provisions are made and it has become absolutely necessary to have a subscription for the reason already stated, is the imposition of one justified. The libraries exist to advance, not to hamper, study and research, whether such study is being carried out by a member of the university or by an outsider.

XXXV

INTER-LIBRARY BORROWING

A good deal has been written and more said of late years in favour of inter-library loans. Even international borrowing is now practised to a quite considerable extent in order to facilitate the work of research students.

With this practice I am not in whole-hearted agreement. Its usefulness, on occasion, cannot be questioned, but the obvious drawbacks are very serious ones indeed,—so serious, in fact, that questions of international importance are involved. The first one is, of course, the risk of loss or damage. I am assuming, naturally, that at least in the case of international loans, only really rare and valuable manuscripts or books would be the subjects. This risk of damage or even loss is not one to be lightly disregarded even when a personal messenger is employed. In my opinion it is, indeed, extremely doubtful whether an institution possessed of a unique book or manuscript morally has the right to take the risks involved in loaning it to some other library or person. Yet the risks are being taken every year. It is, I think, only fair to add that as far as my own knowledge goes, no unique book or manuscript so loaned has been lost or damaged within recent years. That fact, fortunate though it may be, is, I think,

no argument for an increase in this practice of international borrowing. My view is that while undoubtedly a librarian should be in a position, as far as possible, to obtain information about books and manuscripts in other libraries in whatever country they may be, he should refrain from encouraging inter-library borrowing of books which there is no reasonable prospect of replacing in the event of damage or loss. On this point one can hardly be too emphatic. Where more common or less valuable works are concerned there is, perhaps, hardly so much to be said.

Nevertheless, the loaning of any book from one library to another is unquestionably contrary to the principles of good service. In saying this I am aware that I am taking a view which is the direct opposite of that which many of my contemporaries take. The argument is frequently stated that it is a librarian's duty to obtain for readers all the books he can possibly get hold of, whether they are only to be obtained from another library or not. The theory is no doubt good, but in practice, although he is acting to the advantage of his own readers, he is perhaps not so clearly considering the users of the library of whose courtesy he is taking advantage. Thus he is not so thoroughly acting in the best interests of research as he perhaps imagines. The material in one university library is provided primarily for the use of members of that university, and cases must be definitely and clearly very exceptional to justify the lending of books from one country to another.

The solution of the problem is the very obvious one: facsimiles should be made of all unique books and manuscripts, and, if possible, of many more, which,

while not being unique, are of exceptional value. These reproductions should be used as widely as possible for distribution purposes. They should, in fact, be issued as university publications for exchange, and circulated as widely as funds permit. In this way research work is definitely and reasonably helped without the risks of the borrowing system.

It is the privilege of some universities to be able to do much in this direction, but even in the smallest university it is probable that something can be done, and it is manifestly the librarian's duty to press for as much to be done as possible. The apparatus required is not too expensive, and one of the greatest advances made in libraries recently has been the provision in many of them of copying apparatus.

It is very clear to me, and should be thoroughly realized by any assistant who may happen to read this, that a number of librarians and teachers do not share my views. Within the last few years the Association of University Teachers inaugurated a movement towards library co-operation. The main object of this movement was, in fact, the loaning of books from one university library to another. A committee, called the Joint Standing Committee on Library Co-operation, consisting of some librarians and university teachers, was appointed, and undoubtedly many university libraries, notably, of course, the newer foundations and smaller libraries, have reaped benefit from its activities.

To the best of my knowledge most of the older university libraries have declined to co-operate in the scheme. This was natural, since it is obvious that while the newer foundations might advantageously draw upon the stocks of such libraries as the Bodleian,

for example, that Library could hardly hope to gain very considerably by the ability to borrow from a 20th century library. There is, of course, a very slight possibility that one of the new universities might possess books which one of the older ones might wish to borrow, but it is so very slight as to be almost negligible. Thus the advantages of the scheme lie almost entirely on one side.

Nevertheless, the scheme has been undertaken by its promotors with the most excellent of motives, and one would be ungrateful indeed not to wish it success, whatever one's personal views may be.

Another point arises naturally here. That is, the question of the relation of the National Central Library to the university libraries. And here I am glad to be able whole-heartedly and without reserve to support the basic ideas of the admirably conceived Central Library.

This Library is established entirely with the idea of lending books to bona-fide students or to other libraries, and its *raison d'être* is clearly its justification.

It is *not* a university library, yet, under the guidance of its brilliant Librarian, Colonel Luxmoore Newcombe, it promises to become, paradoxically enough, more of a university library than any other library in this country. Every assistant should know all about the National Central Library in London and its sister Library in Dunfermline.

XXXVI

EXCHANGES

Almost all the university libraries in the world acquire works by exchange. In some cases, particularly the smaller and younger libraries, little more than the University Calendar or Catalog, as it is usually called in America, is available for this purpose, and thus the corresponding acquisitions are not large. But many university libraries, in this country and abroad, have quite an elaborate exchange system, involving in some cases the distribution and receipt of hundreds of publications annually.

This exchange system is the result of two important factors in university library affairs. First, the necessity of knowing, and, as far as possible, possessing, all the published works of other universities; in particular, perhaps, the theses and dissertations, which may be said to mirror the activities of the advanced schools and research departments of other universities all over the world. The second factor is one common, I suppose, to almost all libraries, public, university, special, and, indeed, private. I refer, of course, to the impossibility of purchasing all the works which it is desirable that the library should possess.

Although the idea of international exchange was, I think, discountenanced as impracticable during the

18th century and the early part of the 19th century, yet there are at least two recorded instances of its application in the 17th century. Thus in 1694 the *Bibliothèque du Roi* exchanged its duplicates for books printed abroad, and in 1697 *le père* Bouvet took to China a very fine collection of prints sent by the king in exchange for 149 books in the Chinese language.

The honour of resuscitating the idea of international exchanges belongs to a Frenchman named Vattemare. At first an army doctor, then actor, he later became a connoisseur. His travels through Europe and America were particularly extensive and thorough, and he seems to have been *persona grata* everywhere he went. In the year 1832 he conceived or in some way acquired the idea of international exchanges, and from that date all his energy and all the powers at his disposal were concentrated on it. It redounds considerably to his credit that he persuaded not only Britain, but Italy, Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, Turkey, Persia, India, and the United States of America to adopt his scheme. It is, I suppose, precisely what one would expect, that the greatest opposition he had to face was in his own country, France. There he was told that they did not see the necessity for such a scheme. However, it is said that during his thirty-one years of devotion to the subject, and of wanderings round the world in furtherment of his projects, he brought about the exchange of over 300,000 volumes between libraries. In addition to books, many coins, medals, natural history specimens, etc., were exchanged. Exactly what books were thus obtained for this country I do not know, nor do I know what we disposed of,

but it seems moderately certain that through the splendid efforts of this man, who has now been forgotten by most of the libraries who are to-day using his system to their great advantage, that practically all the countries must have benefited greatly.

In some universities the exchange system is worked from the university offices, but in some the work falls to the library staff. As those librarians who have had to deal with a large system of exchanges, not only with other universities but with libraries and societies of all kinds and in all quarters of the world, will be very well aware, it is no small part of the routine work of the library. It is not a wholly inexpensive method of acquiring books, as some people still seem to imagine. On the contrary it is so expensive, by reason of postal expenses, packing or boxes, and time consumed, that it is very necessary to be sure that the returns justify the outlay. Usually they certainly do, but it is none the less essential to watch the matter carefully.

The following list of foreign and colonial universities which are willing to exchange their publications with those of British universities may be useful for reference purposes. It certainly shows some gaps, but it is hoped that they are not very serious ones, and it may serve as a basis for an international list.

ARGENTINE.

Universidad Nacional, Buenos Aires.
Universidad Nacional, Cordoba.
Universidad Nacional, La Plata.

AUSTRALIA.

University Library, Melbourne.

AUSTRALIA.

University Library, Sydney.
University of Otago Library, Dunedin.
University of Queensland, Brisbane.
University of Western Australia, Perth.
Victoria University College, Wellington.

AUSTRIA.

Universitäts—Bibliothek, Graz.
Universitäts—Bibliothek, Vienna.

BELGIUM.

Bibliothèque de l'Université, Brussels.
Bibliothèque de l'Université, Ghent.
Bibliothèque de l'Université, Liége.
Bibliothèque de l'Université, Louvain.

CANADA.

Queen's University Library, Kingston.
McGill University Library, Montreal.
University Library, Toronto.
Dalhousie University, Halifax.

CHILE.

Universidad de Chile, Santiago.

CHINA.

University Library, Hong Kong.

DENMARK.

University Library, Copenhagen.

ESTHONIA.

Ulikooli Raamatukogu, Tartu (Dorpat).

FINLAND.

University Library, Helsingfors.

FRANCE.

Bibliothèque de l'Université, Aix-en-Provence.
" " Besançon.
" " Bordeaux.
" " Caen.
" " Clermont-Ferrand.
" " Dijon.
" " Grenoble.
" " Lille.
" " Lyon.
" " Montpellier.
" " Nancy.
" " Paris.
" " Poitiers.
" " Rennes.
" " Toulouse.
Bibliothèque Universitaire et Régionale, Strasbourg.

GERMANY.

Universitäts-Bibliothek, Berlin.
" " Bonn.
" " Breslau.
" " Erlangen.
" " Freiburg i. B.
" " Giessen.
" " Göttingen.
" " Greifswald.
" " Halle.
" " Heidelberg.
" " Jena.
" " Kiel.
" " Leipzig.
" " Marburg.
" " München.
" " Tübingen.

HOLLAND.

University Library, Amsterdam.
" " Groningen.
" " Leiden.
" " Utrecht.

INDIA.

University Library, Bombay.
" " Calcutta.
" " Madras.
" " Mysore.
Punjab University Library, Lahore.

ITALY.

R. Biblioteca Universitaria, Bologna.
" " Naples.
" " Padua.
" " Pavia.
" " Pisa.
R. Biblioteca Alessandrina della R. Universita, Rome.

JAPAN.

University Library, Kyoto.
Imperial University Library, Kukuoka, Kyushu.
Tôhoku Imperial University Library, Sendai.
Imperial University Library, Tokyo.

JUGO-SLAVIA.

University Library, Belgrade.

MALTA.

University Library, Malta.

NORWAY.

University Library, Oslo.

PALESTINE.

National and University Library, Jerusalem.

PORTUGAL.

University Library, Coimbra.

ROUMANIA.

University Library, Bukarest.

SOUTH AFRICA.

University of South Africa, Pretoria.
" Cape Town, Cape Town.
" Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch.

SPAIN.

Bibliotecas de la Universidad Central, Madrid.

SWEDEN.

University Library, Lund.
" " Uppsala.

SWITZERLAND.

Universitäts-Bibliothek, Basel.
Bibliothèque Publique et Universitaire de Genève, Geneva.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.
University of California, Exchange Department, Berkeley.
University Library, Boston.
Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
General Library, University of Chicago.
University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri.
Cornell University Library, Ithaca, N.Y.
University of Nebraska Library, Lincoln.
University of Minnesota Library, Minneapolis.
Columbia University Library, New York.
New York University Library.
University Library, Grand Forks, North Dakota.

United States of America.

University of Pennsylvania Library, Philadelphia.
Princeton University Library, Princeton, N.J.
Brown University, Providence, R.I.
George Washington University Library, Washington.
University of Illinois, Urbana.
Yale University, New Haven.
University of Wisconsin, Madison.
Leland Stanford Junior University, California.
Smith College Library, Northampton, Mass.

Venezuela.

Universidad Central de Venezuela, Caracas.

West Indies.

Universidad de la Habana, Habana, Cuba.

[*Reference : See* Section devoted to Theses.]

XXXVII

ANNUAL REPORTS

It is not necessary to go deeply into the construction of reports here, since the librarian usually has to follow either long-established custom or definite order in his statements.

All annual reports should be printed and circulated between libraries, for the report of another library is almost always of interest and not infrequently of considerable value to a librarian.

In order to be of most use, statistics given in a report should be comparative, i.e. figures for two, three, or even five years should be given.

Even when the librarian has to frame his report upon definite lines, replying, as it were, to a sequence of queries, he should have power to append his own comments and views upon any and all subjects which he thinks proper to bring before the notice of those to whom the report is addressed. If he has not this power his report, in my opinion, loses considerably in value and becomes a mere stereotyped statement, whereas it should embody, in addition to statistics, the reasoned reflections of the librarian upon the year's work.

Frequently these are of more real importance than any figures which may be given.

XXXVIII

EXHIBITIONS

EVERY university library should have a permanent exhibition. Show cases are essential, of course. In university libraries books abound which have some peculiarity or interest and which are actually in no demand at all. These, clearly, constitute the type which should be on permanent exhibition. Examples should include, whenever possible, specimens of early printing, fine or valuable bindings, autographed copies of works by outstanding authors, rare first editions, illuminated manuscripts, and locally printed books. Other works which might reasonably be included will occur to every librarian on looking over the collections in his charge.

It is desirable also to have temporary exhibitions at various times. These may take a thousand and one forms and may include many works which for obvious reasons cannot be placed in the permanent exhibition.

Properly organized, these temporary exhibitions are capable of stimulating considerable fresh interest in the library from time to time and are often sources of considerable benefit not only to the Library but also to students and other readers.

At centenary or other university celebrations exhibitions should be arranged to show the works

of members of the university at different periods, the history of the university, and so on. In the same way on the occasion of an anniversary of an outstanding scholar formerly connected with the university a collection of his writings and of works about him should be exhibited, if possible.

XXXIX

STUDY OF BINDINGS IN A LIBRARY

It may seem exaggerative to say that of all branches of study and work falling to the duty or pleasure of librarian and bibliographer that of book-bindings, more than any other, is as yet in its infancy.

No doubt much good work has been done in the past and the literature of the subject has assumed considerable proportions. Yet it is, nevertheless, quite true that only now is any literature of really permanent value appearing. There are a few exceptions, it may be well to add (such as Weale's two volumes), to this statement, but in the main it is perfectly correct.

Even now very little, far too little for satisfactory results, is being done in a systematic manner, with clearly defined objects in view, and a scientific method of procedure.

Probably most of us whose daily labours bring us in touch, literally and mentally, with the beautiful old bindings of the monasteries, of collectors such as Diane de Poitiers, and so on, are, as we say, *interested* in the study of book-bindings. Interest is without doubt an admirable factor in everything, and little of value is accomplished without it, but equally true is it that little is accomplished by interest alone, unsupported by some more practical factor.

Having the interest, it is a pity to spoil the ship for a ha'porth of tar.

The first consideration, then, seems to be concerned with questions of what precisely a study of book-bindings is intended to do; what it is to show; what practical value it has.

Most of the bibliographers of the last generation who interested themselves and others in this subject, apparently had in view, naturally enough, no doubt, the history of the owner, and, to an insufficient extent, the biography of the binders themselves. *En passant* it may be noticed that even nowadays far too little is known of the binders and the circumstances in which they worked. A few workers such as Gordon Duff, Strickland Gibson, Cyril Davenport, E. P. Goldschmidt, and G. D. Hobson in our country have really added very valuable contributions to this side of the subject. Much remains to be done, however, in Britain alone.

If the first call upon our study of bindings is to record the binder, and the place of execution, the second to particularize the style of binding, stamps used, and so on, and the third to chronicle the history of the binding from the days of the original owner to our own epoch, it is certain that these three necessary records do not complete the work.

Book-binding is and always has been an art, and like all other arts its value as a study, to the historical researcher, lies in the light thrown upon the ecclesiastical and social life of the past.

Partially unrecognized, unlike its sister arts of painting and engraving, book-binding is particularly fortunate in shedding such light in several ways besides those which are obvious from the foregoing

remarks. For instance, in the first place it has a definite use in indicating the condition of art at the period, and in the second place, in a lesser degree, in providing records of events depicted. Particular instances of this latter case will readily occur to anyone familiar with old bindings.

Portraiture is common on book-bindings, particularly those of German origin, and it should be regarded as such. Too often it is looked upon in much the same way as the indiscriminate book-collector looks upon books, and too seldom is it remembered that usually, at any rate, the binder had a reason for the decoration he used, whether it took the form of a portrait or something totally different.

In the same way Biblical scenes, carefully considered, have a really established value as throwing light upon belief and practice of the day.

Competent study of views, unfortunately not common on bindings, would no doubt reveal the fact that although most likely the perspective is not quite accurate, the main architectural features, the nature of walls and defences in historical scenes, and other features of interest may be correctly given.

Some phases in the history of costume can be studied with little difficulty from a large collection of book-bindings.

Thus it can hardly be doubted, although it certainly seems to be even by some scholars of repute, that the study of book-bindings should be zealously encouraged in all libraries where it can be carried out.

XL

REPRODUCTION OF RARE WORKS, ETC.

EVERY university and college library of considerable size or possessing valuable collections of any description, whether they be manuscripts, early printed books, valuable bindings, rare editions, or what not, should undoubtedly have on the premises materials for reproduction.

In the case of bindings of historical or other interest it sometimes happens that photography is not the best means of reproduction. Rubbings of a binding occasionally show more detail than even a good photograph, and every library assistant ought to be capable of taking a good rubbing when occasion arises.

For facsimile reproductions of textual matter of any description, however, the photostat has been for nearly twenty years and is likely to remain the one satisfactory method.

Librarians of all large and important libraries are called upon frequently for reproductions of parts of works under their care. Naturally the services of a professional photographer can almost always be obtained, but, often enough, particularly in small towns, such photographers are unaccustomed to special work of this description and their results are sometimes far from satisfactory. Usually it is not

desired to send the book or manuscript to a photographer residing at a distance or even to a photostat company, and the librarian may be faced with the alternatives of being satisfied with a poor, or at any rate far from perfect reproduction, or of installing a machine which will do the work satisfactorily in the library itself. Of course by means of a good camera and a knowledge of photography a member of the library staff can produce reasonably good results. Indeed, if few reproductions are required each year, this is perhaps the most desirable method of obtaining them. If, however, many different reproductions or many copies of each are required, then the photostat should be installed if it can possibly be obtained.

Libraries possessing rare texts or valuable manuscripts can do a great deal of useful work in the form of published facsimiles for sale or exchange, at no very great cost, by the aid of the photostat. Immense service has already been rendered by this means, in making available to scholars all over the world facsimile reproductions of rare and valuable documents, manuscripts, and so on.

So far as the actual text of a document is concerned, a reproduction is as useful as the original to all except a researcher who desires to study the material of the document itself, the colour of the ink, watermarks, and like factors. For these matters no copy will ever be of perfect service, and the jealous custodian who likes to think that he has in his care a unique book and therefore resents the idea of distributing copies, may console himself with the reflection that he still guards the one copy from which final decisions must be made.

There is a point, not so commonly remembered as it might be, which peculiarly emphasizes the advantage of having photographic work done on the premises by a staff attached to the library. It is that the professional, admirable though he be, too often, it is feared, is unable to resist the temptation to use the re-touching brush and to attempt unduly to smooth away imperfections with which it is most necessary for the scholar to be acquainted. Occasionally, of course, it may be desirable to have an "improved" facsimile, if such a term be permissible, but the improvement of facsimiles of documents and like matter is so involved with matters more concerning the teaching staff of a university as to be almost outside the scope of this book.

Minute script and printing can readily be rendered much more legible by photographic enlargement, and in a thousand and one ways the camera and its children are the handmaids of the research worker.

The day is fast drawing near when librarians will no longer need to bemoan the possession of broken sets of important works, but will be able to purchase at reasonable cost excellent reproductions of the missing volumes, however long such volumes may have been unobtainable in the book-market. Whether the growth and spread of reproduction methods will ever have a serious effect upon the antiquarian book trade remains to be seen. Presumably collectors of rarities for their own sake will remain uninfluenced, but libraries, with their limited funds, will probably tend towards the purchase of reproductions, rather than the originals of rare and costly works, in the future much more than they have done in the past.

XLI

THE TEACHING OF BIBLIOGRAPHY IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES [1]

THERE may be many points of view where the teaching of bibliography as a definite part of a student's course in literary history is concerned, but there can only be two in regard to the question of a general course of instruction in the use of bibliographical material. These two points of view are, obviously, the favourable and the unfavourable.

It is somewhat surprising that there should be an unfavourable viewpoint at all in these days, but anyone who has been long connected with university life is well aware that the professor who regards it as quite unnecessary to waste time over any instruction in the use of indexes, catalogues, bibliographies, etc., still exists. Often enough his attitude is based on the assumption that anyone who is connected with a university has a *flair* for these things, which renders him superior to all instruction or training.

It is far from the intention of the writer to deny or even to question the fact that certain people undoubtedly have a natural instinct in bibliographical and research method. But it is equally true that many students have not ; and for the benefit of these less fortunate people every college and university in

[1] Reprinted by courtesy of the *Scottish Educational Journal.*

the world ought to provide training in the use of both books and libraries.

The idea behind this theory is by no means a new one, but general adoption still seems only a remote probability. Strangely enough, public libraries, which are not, after all, educational institutions in quite the same degree as university libraries, although there can be no doubt of their educational value and use nowadays, have made far more headway in this direction than have college and university libraries. This is, perhaps, on the negative side, largely due to the influence exerted in favour of the assumption already mentioned. On the positive side it may be due to a greater degree of exertion in favour of the idea on the part of prominent public librarians.

America, of course, as in most things connected with librarianship, is very much to the fore in this matter of instruction. It is a curious point, to be noted only as a matter of interest, that although the United States has perhaps produced, generally speaking, greater librarians than Britain, yet our own country still holds the palm for bibliography.

This matter of instruction in the use of libraries and books lies, strictly, in the no-man's land between librarianship and bibliography. It is not particularly the duty of a bibliographer to teach others the various methods of arrangement adopted by libraries. Nor is it an essential part of a librarian's duties to instruct readers in bibliographical research method.

Perhaps it is true to say that this subject of instruction is neither bibliography pure nor librarianship, but an essential introductory subject to both ; and by introductory is not meant elementary.

Contrary to a fairly general opinion, the subject

is not one which is within the scope of every librarian.

It is as absurd for every librarian to assume capability of giving instruction in bibliography (to use one word in place of several) as it is for every regular user of a library to claim to be a bibliographer.

To be capable of giving a complete course of instruction in the subject implies a knowledge far wider and far greater than most librarians possess or require to possess.

That, however, is only a point which arises in the general question of a complete and detailed course; such a course, in fact, as would not be either profitable or practicable in general. It goes without saying that every university librarian should be capable of giving such a course and, indeed, that many are capable, but it is equally true, unfortunately, one imagines, that some are not.

However that may be, it is only necessary and desirable that, as far as the ordinary student is concerned, some general instruction, quite within the scope of any librarian, should be given.

It is firmly believed that particular and detailed courses should be available in every university, but such courses should not be essential in university curricula, whereas a general course of instruction should fall to the lot of every student.

The first and most important point about any general course is absolute and complete devotion to *fact* and exclusion of *opinion*. Controversial details and undecided matters should be rigorously excluded, and the course should be one of instruction proper, not a sequential compilation of surmises.

One of the first acquirements requisite to a student

is the ability to distinguish between fact and opinion. It is, therefore, obvious that any attempt to instruct in bibliographical method should in the first case be severely restricted. The general course should, indeed, consist of little more than a series of statements of fact, arranged in useful sequence and presented in an interesting manner.

The librarian who confines himself to such a course will find that he has not only halved his own preparatory work, but has at the same time more than doubled the value of his lectures.

An average first year student, freshman, or bejant cares little for libraries, and less for bibliography. His inclinations, maybe, apart from having a good time, lie in the direction which will enable him to become a great mathematician in the least possible time and with the minimum amount of attendance at lectures. To impose upon him a discourse upon the relative methods of the Library of Congress Classification Scheme and "Dewey" is a short and easy method of keeping him away from the library and away from the lectures. All that it is essential to tell him in this direction is the arrangement adopted in the particular library with which he is most concerned and to point out that, while other libraries use different signs and numbers, practically all of them group their books by subject, so that the aim in all is broadly the same.

Considerable time and thought had been given to the study of the question in America, and in 1916 the Committee on University and College Libraries presented to the National Education Association a report embracing the following recommendations.

1. Every college and university should give training in the use of books and libraries in classes including all students.

2. The library staff should be adequate to carry on this work.

3. Courses should be offered in the best books for grade schools and the best books for high schools.

4. Each college should provide its students with handbooks explaining the resources of the library and the arrangement of books.

5. Special departments should require the students to prepare bibliographies in proper form.

Recommendation (1) really embodies a scheme quite satisfactory and sufficiently comprehensive in description. It may be taken that recommendation (2) is really a clause with which most librarians will be in agreement.

It is extremely doubtful if librarians in this country have the time at their disposal to devote to the suggestion embodied in recommendation (3). Further than that it is very questionable if any university librarian is capable of advising students on the best books in all subjects year after year. To be in a position to do so really satisfactorily would imply either a most unusual amount of knowledge or an enormous amount of labour on the part of the librarian. The ordinary lists of " best books " and so on are, generally speaking, of little value in a university library, and even in the case of those which are of genuine value, the librarian who proposes to constantly make a *résumé* of them and serve up the result regularly in lecture form or any other form is embarking upon a career which is sure of disaster.

In the first place, he will be overworked; in the second, he will have to neglect far more important work (in his sphere); and in the third place, his results will certainly not tally with the advice given to the students by the heads of the various departments. Trouble is bound to be his lot and little real good will be done. The task of advising on best books should, without doubt, rest mainly upon the professors and lecturers. It is part of their daily work, and usually they are in far better positions to advise on the literature of their subjects than any librarian is likely to be, except in the case of a librarian who happens to be a specialist in some branch of knowledge outside librarianship and bibliography. Few members of university teaching staffs will thank a librarian for advising students on the matter.

Recommendation (4) might profitably be adopted more generally in this country than it has been as yet. At the same time it must be borne in mind that many students, having such a handbook presented to them, will not read it with any degree of attention, and some will not even bother to look at it at all. If all students could be relied upon to read carefully a well-written little handbook the work involved in recommendation (1) might be halved.

Recommendation (5) does not come within the scope of the general course which is proposed here.

The American idea is, to some extent, it is understood, based upon an introductory course of lectures on the use of a library, followed by practice assignments to be worked out in the library itself. With the first part of this programme most librarians

must find themselves in complete agreement, but it is highly improbable that the second part is practicable in this country. Indeed, it is very doubtful if it is either desirable or necessary, as far as most users of libraries are concerned. In a school of librarianship or bibliography, of course, the primary aim is to teach these subjects thoroughly and systematically.

It is probable that some librarians are so obsessed by their subject as to be oblivious to the fact that to outsiders it is as dull as ditchwater and quite unimportant in the general scheme of things. For instance, in relation to the education of the student-reader in matters connected with libraries, a course of lectures was given in a certain university. One of the lectures bore the title (quite a reasonable one, by the way): *Possibilities of the Dictionary.* This was duly described by a librarian as a title to whet the appetite. It is difficult to imagine that the average British university student is voracious for such mental food.

If it is at all practicable, either one, two, or at the most three general lectures should be given to the whole of the students, not only to the freshmen, at the opening of each session. These lectures may be given by the librarian himself or by a senior member of his staff, but there is no doubt that in either case the university librarian should at least revise them before delivery. The reason that they should be delivered to all students is in order to provide a suitable public opportunity of calling attention to any recent developments, changes of system, or important donations. It is extremely desirable that these lectures should be printed. Copies should be circulated freely in the university,

and, if funds permit, these printed lectures might advantageously be exchanged between universities.

It is suggested that a course of lectures on these lines might be built up somewhat in the following manner:

Lecture 1.—Brief account of the history of the library.

Lecture 2.—The arrangement of the books. What catalogues are available. Borrowing privileges. Restrictions and regulations.

Lecture 3.—Special collections in the library. The strength or weakness of the library.

Such a syllabus is sufficiently comprehensive and at the same time quite detailed enough. The first lecture is advisable, the second is the most important, and the third is not essential, but provides scope for giving students a more intimate insight into the library as a collection of books, and in the older universities, at least, may be made very interesting. Apart from the other obvious advantages, students would receive an insight into librarianship as a possible career.

Bibliographical Note.

TANDY (JENETTE REID). *College teaching of elementary bibliography.* (In: *Educational Review, vol.* 62, 1921. pp. 382-91.)

XLII

COPYRIGHT POSSIBILITIES IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

Several university libraries in Britain enjoy the privilege of being entitled to a copy of all books published in this country. A few others, such as St Andrews University Library, sold their birthright and are now in receipt of a small sum annually, which is supposed to compensate for the loss of this privilege. In our case the annual grant is only £630. It needs but little, if any, thought to realize the total inadequacy of such a sum in lieu of the copyright privilege. However, the step was taken many years ago, and presumably it is irrevocable.

There is another point of view of the whole matter which is never accorded much publicity. Practically speaking, every university library is in the habit of collecting local literature, and in most cases local collection catalogues are in being. This is a feature of work in a university library which is of the utmost importance and value, particularly to the historian. This fact is fairly generally realized, yet little or nothing is done by the country, the county, or even the town in which the library is situated and to which it is rendering very great service, to help the work.

The result of the present system is the obvious

one. Local collections, excellent in many ways though they often are, and generally admirably arranged and catalogued, are yet not even approaching the ideal of a local collection. A student of local matters cannot go to a library possessing and, perhaps, almost bragging of its local collection, with any real feeling of confidence that he will find there the local works he requires. It is high time that more general recognition was made of the fact that what may have been eminently suitable in many libraries in the first half of the 19th century, when libraries were largely a "back number," is very far from satisfactory to-day.

A definite and whole-hearted change of attitude is required by the country, the library authorities, and, sad to say, in many cases by the librarians themselves, some of whom are still enveloped in the cloak of "it always has been like that here and it probably will remain so during my tenure of office." It is perfectly true, however, and it is only fair to add that librarians can often do little enough in their own libraries in the way of reformation. They can often exert more influence on librarianship at large and even on their own library by outside methods.

There is little hope of increasing the number of libraries enjoying the copyright privileges, and, indeed, there is a good deal to be said against doing so. There is, however, the possibility, though it may be somewhat remote, of gaining modified privileges. Thus, for instance, if it is generally recognized, as it seems to be, that local collections are a really useful part of libraries, one which it is emphatically desirable to keep up, surely it is reasonable to

suppose that some assistance in the acquirement of local literature might be given in the case of suitable libraries ?

A modified copyright privilege enabling one large library in any given town, whether it be university or public, to obtain without cost to itself all local literature, would be a very definite step in the direction of assisting historians of the future, and seems from most points of view quite justifiable.

Arrangements would, no doubt; have to be made, for the benefit of authors and publishers, forbidding the loan, or even, perhaps, the consultation of books acquired in such a manner, for a period after publication. This, however, would not negative the value of the collection, since the idea is to assist libraries in accumulating collections which may be of real value and importance to research workers in all branches of literature in the future, but primarily, of course, local historians and, through them, general historians.

How far it would be practicable or even possible to adopt any such arrangement where public libraries maintained at the expense of ratepayers are concerned it is difficult to see, but university libraries are in a different category; and are, obviously, intended largely to assist research workers. No difficulty in the way of the adoption of such a scheme is apparent in their case, except the obvious one—objection by the government and by the producers of the works.

In the case of the former the difficulty is, probably, not so great as may be imagined, and in that of the authors and publishers the confinement of the works to the libraries for a number of years would probably pacify them, and few, probably, would seriously

object to their works being available for consultation within the library buildings.

The greatest difficulty of all, perhaps, would be tracing some of the "local" books published at a distance. For example, a book about the history of Wolverhampton might be written and published in, say, the north of Scotland by people quite unconnected with the town, and it would be difficult to ensure that a copy was deposited in the Wolverhampton Library. This difficulty, however, is, after all, one which besets any collector of local literature in any case.

XLIII

COLLEGE AND DEPARTMENTAL LIBRARIES

THERE is no uniformity of practice in British universities where the relationship between the libraries of colleges and departments and the general university library is concerned. Some university librarians are in control of the other libraries belonging to the university; others have partial or nominal control, and in other universities the smaller libraries are quite independent concerns, over which the university librarian has no authority whatever.

No doubt many arguments could be raised for a united control in certain universities where such does not exist at present, but all arguments in this case must be based upon the conditions which prevail within each university.

In most of the modern universities it seems probable that the university librarian should be responsible for all the libraries belonging to the university. On the other hand, circumstances are largely against this in the older foundations.

From the librarian's point of view it is probable that the main difficulty lies in the size of his staff. If he has a staff sufficiently large to cope with the work adequately there are undeniable advantages to be obtained under a single control, but if his staff

is already fully occupied, and this is usually the case, then it is inadvisable to add to his responsibilities.

Perhaps the best solution, where a large number of small libraries exists within a university, in addition to the university library itself, is separate administration, subject to control by a joint board composed of those responsible for the smaller libraries and having as its president the university librarian. Matters of purely individual importance could then be left to each librarian, while those bearing upon the university as a whole could be discussed and decided upon by the joint board.

XLIV

THE REORGANIZATION OF UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

In the first place it may be asked, why should a university library be reorganized? And that question is not so rapidly and easily answered as it might seem to be. To answer it, as will be obvious after a moment's thought, involves a second question, what do you mean by reorganization? This second question may be answered without hesitation—I mean the complete or almost complete recataloguing, reclassification and the consequent rearrangement of the books and other items which go to make up the library. I do not mean a mere change of staff or of the system of loaning books or dealing with the binding or any smaller problems, but, largely, I include these as details in the plan. Thus one might almost say that a completely new start is made, except for the fact that the books are the same. The buildings may or may not be the same. A very large enterprise, varying, of course, with the size of different libraries, is clearly implied, and one which does not fall within the duties of every librarian. The present writer, however, having had a considerable experience in the reorganization of two of the largest university libraries in Britain may be considered to have sufficient knowledge of this

extraordinary work to justify an attempt on his part to describe the procedure which in actual practice has been proved to work satisfactorily, and to make certain suggestions which may perhaps be of service to other librarians who have to undertake a task which calls for no inconsiderable expenditure of thought, planning, ingenuity, and labour.

Expenditure of money is deliberately left out in the preceding sentence, since a really adequate amount may or may not be forthcoming, and if it is not the librarian will be forced to do much with little. This, indeed, is probably his most ordinary duty.

In the first place, when it has been definitely decided to reorganize as completely as has been indicated above, a thorough survey of the library must be made. This involves, among other things, numerous sketch plans which it is advisable, indeed one might say essential, for the librarian to prepare for himself. He will be able to carry the comprehensive scheme in his head as no other can do if the origination of the reorganization idea was his. Hence the plans, to be of real service to him, must be his own productions. A plan of every room, showing its actual capacity, the amount of shelving occupied, and the amount unoccupied, must be made. If the library is already classified on some scheme which is being dropped, or, at any rate, is roughly arranged in groups or subjects, his work will be considerably lessened, and the plans should then show the contents of the rooms. But if no such arrangement by subjects exists his task is an enormous one, and he cannot, of course, indicate the contents of the rooms.

Assuming the latter condition, there are two methods of procedure as far as the classification is concerned,

but before either of them is decided upon it is necessary to draw another set of plans on which will be shown, as far as it is humanly possible to do so, the eventual arrangement of the library in classes. The difficulty, of course, lies in the fact that the librarian does not, in this case, know how large each subject is and how far it will be possible to house certain subjects in certain rooms. This difficulty is likely to be greatly increased if an open-access system is to be introduced, with commonly used books in the reading room or rooms. Here, however, lies the possibility for the exercise of the librarian's brilliance, insight or whatever one may call it. He will perforce be obliged to roam from room to room grasping, by means of the insight referred to, the contents of each room as none but a librarian can, and carrying in his head an approximate idea of the number of books in each subject in each and every room, if the library is a really large one, as is being assumed here. Formidable as this duty appears, it is not so impossible of execution as it may seem to be. And here I am writing from personal experience. It is, indeed, a perfectly possible feat, and can be carried out in a shorter time than one would imagine.

Having done this the librarian is in a position to know, at least vaguely, how far his ideas are practicable, and he has then to decide on which of the two methods already referred to he will adopt for the "big move." These methods are :

1. To commence work upon one room (or more if he has a large staff) and to systematically classify each book in that room *without* any rearrangement until every room is finished.

2. To attempt immediate rearrangement of the whole library.

Of these two methods the first is undoubtedly the more scientific one. On the other hand, it is much slower and, more important still, leaves the librarian to some extent at sea, right up to the end of the work of classifying, as to the flaws in his original plans. Moreover, even when the library is completely classified, he has still to carry out a tremendous rearrangement of the books (and shelves). In the meantime new books pour in upon him like the waves upon the seashore, but, unlike them, the waves of books do not recede at regular times. They tend, indeed, to encroach further and further upon him until he is literally swamped and in danger of being drowned in the sea of books. There is, it may be mentioned, a very real danger that he himself, or some members of his staff, will lose their heads and actually be overpowered by the tempest.

The second method is unscientific and the dangers of embarking upon it are obvious. The staff may attempt the wholesale rearrangement of the library from the outset, succeed in carrying out a certain amount of the work in addition to their routine duties, succeed also in classifying and keeping track of many of the works, and then at the end of, say, six months' labour discover that they have "lost" half the library! That is to say a great many books may have been re-shelved in different parts of the library in such a hurry that no detailed record has been kept of their movements, or else that time has not been found to mark the new locations on the books themselves.

It is, however, quite possible to rearrange a large

library by this second method. The essentials are, (1) adequate signs placed round the store rooms and other parts of the library indicating the new classes to be shelved there in addition to the existing scheme of arrangement; (2) printed classification forms which must be filled in for every work moved from one place to another; (3) the adoption of a rapid system of marking new class-marks on the backs of books.

The requirements under (1) above are obvious. The classification forms referred to under (2) must have forms provided for author, title, date or edition, old press-mark and new location-mark. The details may be filled in as briefly as possible, and spaces may also be provided for other details, if necessary. For example, spaces may be added in which can be shown the subsequent alterations to the various existing catalogue entries. These alterations can be carried out at any convenient time, and when all have been done the classification form may be either destroyed or filed for statistical purposes.

The most rapid and easy method of re-marking books has been found to be by means of white ink and a suitable pen. After a little practice it is possible to write both rapidly and neatly on the backs of most books. The white ink is fairly durable, but can be washed off if wrongly done. On the other hand, a touch of varnish over it, when time permits, renders it more or less permanent.

These essentials having been provided, the re-arrangement of a library may commence at once. The new signs are placed in position, e.g. the block to be devoted to History is so labelled in addition to its old sign or signs. Books are then classified,

classification forms written, the new marks put on the backs of the books, the classification forms filed in alphabetical order, and the books re-shelved under the new signs. It is perhaps necessary to add that one or more shelves must be empty ready for the newly-classified books in each new section at the outset. The amount of room available will, of course, expand as the classification proceeds. There will then be two distinct runs of books under each heading, i.e. the old run and that of the section taking its place. If the preliminary mapping out of the library has been done satisfactorily the work will proceed with few hitches. If, on the other hand, it has not been well done, there will no doubt be trouble before long. Even so the trouble will be only temporary, for it will simply mean that insufficient accommodation has been allowed for one or more of the new classes. Hence a partial re-mapping will be necessary.

It may be added that if the work of re-arrangement is to be carried out very rapidly it will not be possible to classify in detail each book, but merely to assign to it a rough class-mark, the detailed classification being carried out when the whole of the library has been re-arranged. And this, as experience has shown, is the only method by which a large library can be re-arranged and classified rapidly.

This rough classification may best be carried out by a senior assistant moving constantly from one place to another throughout the library, writing in pencil inside each book dealt with the rough class-mark he assigns to it. He should be followed by another assistant whose duty it is to fill in a classification form for each of the books and to write the

class-mark in white ink on the backs of the books.

A junior assistant should follow, shelving the books as rapidly as possible in their new locations.

While this work is going on a competent classifier should be at work on the books roughly classified, finishing the work by classifying them in more detail and writing the new catalogue entry for each work completely classified. Obviously he will be far behind the other workers if he is himself working single-handed. Thus it is a great advantage to have one person classifying the books in detail and a second one working with him but cataloguing them.

In a university library, where people's " subjects " are known to the library staff, complete reorganization on these lines is very advantageous indeed if the library has remained on the old press-mark system for a great many years, because literature certain to be of interest to someone or other will constantly be " discovered," and the person's attention may be called to it.

As the work proceeds, the advantages of an additional building here or there, the moving of a set of book-stacks from one part to another, and so on will become obvious, and may be carried out, of course, as funds permit.

Usually there are arrears of binding in a large library, and it is a real advantage from most points of view (if a grant to cover the cost of dealing with these works can be obtained) to have them sent to the binder as soon as possible after the re-organization is commenced. More shelf space for re-arrangement is immediately forthcoming, and, of course, it is better

to have the books bound. The advantage of having the additional shelf space, even for a short time, is very great.

At St Andrews the programme of re-organization included, in addition to classifying, re-cataloguing and re-arranging all the books, the compilation of accessions records, dealing with large arrears of binding, re-organization of counter service and borrowing methods, adoption of open-access system, allocation of the book funds, revised methods of book-keeping, provision of new buildings, minor structural alterations, and other details. Probably only very rarely will such a large programme be undertaken where a library of the size and age of St Andrews is concerned and thus it is not thought necessary to go into these other details here. It is hoped, however, that what has been written may be of some slight service to others undertaking a programme of re-organization.

XLV

RE-CATALOGUING A UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

A.

ALTHOUGH many works on cataloguing exist, some of which are admirable and fairly comprehensive, I do not know of one devoted to re-cataloguing. It may be said, no doubt it will be, by a few thoughtless people, that a work on cataloguing is equally on re-cataloguing. That this is an idea very far removed from actual truth is only too well known by those who have tackled both the cataloguing of a library and the re-cataloguing of one. Of course, rules regarding the form of entry, the number of entries for any given work, and a few similar features are equally applicable, but, as I shall endeavour to demonstrate, the governing principles of compilation and actual practice vary enormously in the two tasks.

In the first place, assuming we are faced with the problem of re-cataloguing a university library, we have two different situations to cope with. In parenthesis I may point out that the reason I say a *university library* and not a *library* is that I am concerned in this work with university libraries only, and, further, that on the type of reader catered for hinges the style of catalogue. Thus I am not sure

that the practice I recommend here would be the most suitable for a city library, and it would be quite unsuitable and out of the question for a county library. The two situations obviously are (1) that created by the old stock which has to be *re-catalogued*, and (2) that created by the current additions to the library which have to be *catalogued*. I am not proposing to deal with the second and more ordinary situation in this chapter, except in so far as it may be necessary in order to illustrate divergences in the practical work created by the two situations.

We have already assumed that we are faced with the problem of re-cataloguing a university library, and I wish now further to assume that it is a fairly large library, containing, let us say, a quarter of a million volumes and an unknown but large number of pamphlets, dissertations, and other works of a minor size but, of course, not necessarily of minor importance.

The staff, unless the library is in the United States of America, where larger staffs are the rule, is almost sure to be inadequate. This, unfortunately, is quite likely to be true, not merely from the point of view of numbers, but, which is more important still, from the point of view of competence. It is mainly because of this very fact that I am hopeful that the methods I suggest, which are largely the results of experience in the re-cataloguing of two large university libraries, may be helpful to others faced with similar problems to those which the present writer has had to cope with. When tackling an important piece of work for the first time it is almost true to say that no one is really competent, since it is only by reason of the advantages of seeing afterwards how much

more easily and rapidly one might have done the work in another way that one becomes really competent to do that work.

The first great factor to be considered and reckoned with, in the re-cataloguing of a library is the broad composition of the library. By this I mean the results of a general survey of the library showing its special collections and libraries and its general features from the book point of view.

The second great factor is the library as a building or a collection of buildings.

The third factor of importance is the body which governs the library, the library committee, or the senatus academicus, or the university court or council. On this body depends the freedom of the librarian in deciding what form the catalogue resulting from the re-cataloguing shall take.

The fourth factor is the staff of the library. The value of the staff depends largely upon the librarian himself, for a good librarian can do wonders with the poorest of staffs. No librarian, however, even though he be a genius, can re-catalogue a large library himself within a reasonable amount of time.

There are various other factors, mostly of minor importance and which need not be mentioned at the moment. I have deliberately omitted what many would describe as the most important factor of all, that is, the financial question. In doing so I am assuming that the ordinary expenses involved in purchase of material for re-cataloguing are provided for, and as I am not dealing with the time-worn question of " to print or not to print " here, the financial point of view hardly arises. My personal experience is that the actual expense involved in

re-cataloguing a library is more or less negligible. Certainly it is not in proportion with the value and importance of the work.

B.

In the first part of this chapter the most important factors governing the re-cataloguing of a university library were outlined. We are now concerned more with the actual work itself, but it will be necessary to consider anew one or two of those factors before we proceed much further.

The composition of the library was the first important factor mentioned. Assuming that the librarian is new to his surroundings, his primary task will be to gain an approximately correct idea of what the library contains, and this is not always an easy matter. He may take it for granted that there is a good collection of English literature, French literature, Latin literature, and mathematics in every university library in this country. Beyond that it is unwise to assume anything. Indeed, even where English literature, for example, is concerned, he cannot be certain that the library contains all the texts which ought to be there. No doubt there will be found many biographies, critical works and the like, at least half of which would be better elsewhere. The only way in which he can obtain even a moderately satisfactory idea of the library is by classification. Of course the library may be already classified, and his work will then be simplified enormously. If it is not, however, his first piece of work is the drawing together in broad classes of the different subjects in the library. I am well aware that one of the maxims of good librarianship is to

the effect that no book must be moved from one location to another until the location mark on all catalogue and other entries relating to it has been altered. I am compelled to admit, therefore, that I regard this maxim as a harmful, obsolete, progress retarding, work delaying idea. As a section of this book is devoted to classification, where this question properly belongs, it is not proposed to go further into it here. It will thus be necessary to assume that the maxim has been disregarded and that the works in the library have been brought together according to their subjects with the least loss of time possible.

There are usually other classes of books in university libraries besides those of subjects. Numerous special collections and libraries, which must be kept together in conformity with deeds of gift or for other reasons, will be present. A *manuscripts* collection, an *early printed books* collection ; collections of books by and about a particular author, and a local collection have to be reckoned with.

This brings us, I think, to the second important factor in the re-cataloguing of a university library, the library buildings.

Practically all librarians of large libraries have a considerable amount of knowledge of planning and library architecture. This should at once be turned to account and the possibilities of expansion explored. Certain parts of the buildings will usually be found to be in positions which at once negative the idea of adding to them. If it is in the least practicable I unhesitatingly suggest that here should be located the library's special collections, many of which are dead as far as growth is concerned. Other parts, or at

least another part, may admit of the possibility of adding another building, and here, as a rule, may be placed the sections which grow most rapidly, for example the library's stock of periodical literature. In other sections I have been able to treat this subject in more detail than is given here. It is only necessary to outline the bearing of the buildings on the catalogues in this section.

Having got so far with the general scheme of arrangement, and assuming under factor three that the librarian either has a free hand in the form the catalogues shall take, or, at any rate, is able to persuade those to whom he is responsible that his methods are the best, it is obviously necessary to decide definitely upon the form.

In my opinion, from the user's point of view, there is only one form of catalogue which is really suitable for a university library, or, indeed, for any large reference library. This is the page catalogue, either in printed and bound volumes or loose-leaf books in which the entries are pasted. The order of the entries should be alphabetical, by author's names. The chief advocates of the card catalogue will disagree with me, and undoubtedly there is much to be said on their side. As far as the library staff is concerned, indeed, there can be no doubt that the card catalogue has many advantages over the page form. However, instead of debating the question, let us assume that both forms are to be compiled; the card catalogue, perhaps, for the use of students, and the page catalogue for the use of teaching staff. There is probably already in the library a catalogue or catalogues in one form or another; indeed, it is certain that there will be or the library cannot be

re-catalogued. The existing catalogue or catalogues may be on cards, and if so it is necessary to decide whether or not it is practicable or advisable to use any of the entries again. In the case of an old library with an out-of-date printed catalogue still in use it will usually be found expedient to ignore altogether (at first) the old catalogue and to start completely anew. Many cataloguers a century or so ago had a great affection for " airing " their Latin. Thus, not infrequently, a Latin title of a book was rendered in some other form than that actually appearing on the title page. Almost always, too, the letters I and J and U and V were treated as being the same letters. Both of these habits have become inconvenient to-day, and the former considerably detracts from the value of old catalogues. If there is a card catalogue, however, it may be an economy to utilize some of the entries again. Obviously this depends on the excellence or otherwise of the entries in question. A further complication arises, I find, in most of the old libraries. This is, that page catalogues have been used until, say, 1900, supplemented by card catalogues for later additions: neither being complete catalogues of the stock. Clearly it is most desirable that a complete catalogue in one or more forms should exist, and if the card form is adopted it is strongly recommended that the idea of utilizing, at least for main entries, the printed cards of the Library of Congress, should be given very careful consideration. If a page catalogue is to be prepared it is imperative that the library should possess a copy of the Catalogue of the British Museum, or at any rate a recent catalogue of another very large library.

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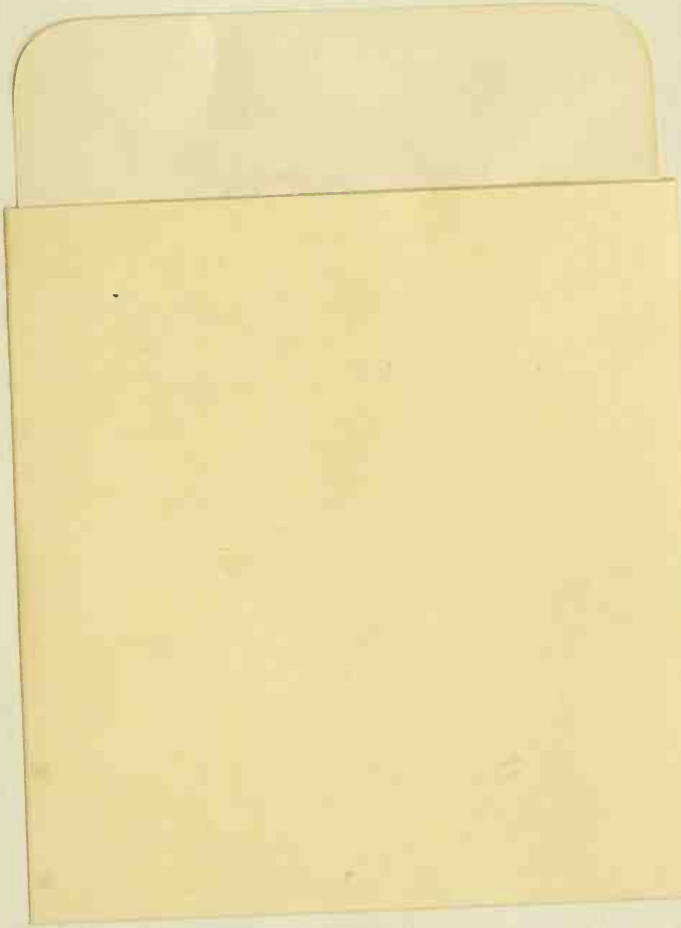
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